

J. C. Parker

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IN EDUCATION**

EDITED BY ELLWOOD P. CUBBERLEY

**PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION
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EDUCATION FOR CITIZENSHIP

BY

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EDITOR'S INTRODUCTION

It is evident to any close observer that many far-reaching changes in the character of society have recently taken place which call for certain fundamental alterations in both the character and the purpose of instruction in the school. These changes are due largely to the Industrial Revolution of the past century, which has so profoundly modified all the conditions of living and reduced the world, as it were, to a parish, that the relationships and interdependencies of race to race to-day are as intimate as those of neighboring counties a century ago. This has placed us in a new world, a world in which the heed for more careful training to fit individuals for more efficient coöperation in the collective enterprises of society — local, State, and National — becomes more apparent each year. The demand for this new type of instruction, too, comes from life itself rather than from educational theorists.

When the school was first established in this Nation, we placed our faith in too simple a conception of the purpose and process of education. Having declared for full manhood suffrage, and having created the school as an instrument of democracy to teach to all the fundamental tools of learning, we conceived that the gift of suffrage would create the will to use it and that an elementary education for all would create the capacity to use the gift aright. That knowledge is power and leads to virtue was a belief of the time in which we placed too firm a faith.

With the increasing complexity of society and the failure of our political institutions to realize all the expectations we had had for them, which began to be evident by the begin-

ning of the third quarter of the nineteenth century, we saw that the incidental training for citizenship gained through unguided participation in the life of our democratic form of government was insufficient for our needs. We accordingly began to supplement such incidental training by a study of the forms and the machinery of government. Constitutions, lawmaking procedures, and the forms and ways of organized government — National, State, and local — formed the basis of this new type of instruction. While all this served a certain purpose that was useful, and for a time was given much emphasis, the inadequacy of such instruction to meet the new needs of society became more and more evident as time went by.

It has finally dawned on us, as a people, that effective civic education must consist of much more than a knowledge of our political machinery and organizations. All this may be useful, but it is only a part, and a relatively unimportant part, of real civic education. It bears about the same relation to real civic training that learning the rules of English grammar does to training in the use of the English speech. Instead, real education for citizenship, we now see, is a long process, and involves much indirect as well as direct instruction. Its final outcome must lead the pupil to see beyond the forms of the organization of our political institutions; it must give training for associative living in a democratic society of increasing complexity, in which each must do his part and perform his proper tasks. This must be done chiefly by long-continued training in this type of living during the formative years of life.

Viewed in this light, the school becomes a vast laboratory for citizenship training, in which principal, teachers, classrooms, assembly, playgrounds, and the various activities of the school all play an important part. Good teaching, plenty of motivated work, constructive discipline, good

playground organization, organized pupil activities, a good grading and promotional plan, wise use of assembly periods, employment of pupils as leaders, the awakening of a school pride and loyal spirit, making the life of the school real living, the development of some form of community service, and the impress of the ideals and personality of strong teachers and a capable principal — all these are constructive means in citizenship training that are far more important than civic instruction of the older type. Dewey's dictum that the school should be real active life, and not a mere preparation for living, finds its clear exemplification in the matter of citizenship training.

As this new conception of the school has dawned upon us, school systems have been reorganized in their instruction, the work of the school has been motivated anew, the life of the school has been changed in character, and pupil participation in the organization and control of the school has been extended. This has often thrown new burdens on principals and teachers for which they were but ill-prepared, because such a fundamental change in direction of the school involved something for which teachers had had no training. So impressed have our people been with this new type of instruction, though, that within recent years a number of our States have enacted laws or regulations directing that prospective teachers be given instruction in this new type of citizenship training. One of our States which has recently imposed such a requirement is California, the State Board of Education of which has ordered that every candidate for any type of teacher's certificate must offer evidence of having had a course in Education for Citizenship, and that this course must be a course in plans and methods and procedures, and not in the subject-matter of civics or the machinery of government or constitutional forms. Within these limitations each teacher-training institution in the

State has been left free to work out its own course and plan.

The present number in this series of textbooks on education represents a part — the more practical and concrete part — of the course as since worked out at Stanford University. While the course includes readings and instruction on the more theoretical side of the subject, the concrete details and possible procedures have been segregated and presented here in book form. This has been done in part in the belief that students in the course would profit more if the concrete materials were placed in a form that they could read and carry away with them, and in part in the belief that the subject-matter here presented will be of great service, not only in teacher-training institutions elsewhere, but to the thousands of teachers now in service, all over the United States, who have not had the benefit of such instruction.

ELLWOOD P. CUBBERLEY

PREFACE

ALTHOUGH recognizing the dominant position given to the civic objective in modern life, the purpose of the author in preparing this book has not been to suggest radical departures from past educational procedure. The book accordingly does not present new courses of study and new principles of method. It does, however, attempt to show ways and means by which school practices may be brought more in line with the civic goal. It does emphasize the necessity of further reorganization and of further modification of the schools if they are to keep step with social progress and are to accelerate that progress.

The point of view presented is therefore the practical one. It is realized that teachers and administrators are busy people, and that the schoolroom demands of the day are neither few nor of slight consequence. Among the daily problems are many of great civic significance. Training courses and textbooks in education have often ignored them altogether, or have dealt with them from the point of view of knowledge and principles and not from the point of view of use. On the other hand, the object here has been to present a list of things which may be introduced immediately into practice.

The method which has been followed is as direct a one as possible. First, the problem is stated briefly, and as briefly analyzed. The advantages and disadvantages of varying methods of procedure are next summarized. This is next followed by a number of specific examples of what teachers are actually doing in the field, and how they are doing it. These illustrations are as concrete as they can be made, and are

in the main typical of modern practice. The number given is sufficient to enable almost any teacher to find something that she can apply in her own school, to the promotion of its civic efficiency. Each chapter concludes with an enumeration of guiding principles and a condensed summary.

The exercises and problems at the end of each chapter are designed to supply a list of things to do and things to think about, rather than a list of things to gather information about. Most of them also contain suggestions which may also be adapted to the daily work of the school. The purpose has been to supply questions for discussion and investigation by classes in education, and by groups of teachers in service either in connection with teachers' meetings or in reading circles. The same principle has controlled the selection of bibliographical references. The theoretical and general works in the field have been omitted for those that deal with concrete situations and direct programs of action.

To summarize, the purpose of the author in preparing this book has been:

1. To point out that good citizenship is the final goal of all teaching and of all school organization.
2. To analyze some of the problems of organization and teaching which are often ignored or neglected in educational literature.
3. To show the abundant direct and incidental opportunities in the modern school and the modern community for civic training and civic experience.
4. To emphasize a method of teaching which has been found productive of good results, wherever it has been given a fair trial.
5. To bring out the importance of living citizenship as a means of learning its lessons, and to show further the personal satisfaction in social effort.
6. To give many concrete illustrations, taken from the

work of the best schools of to-day, to clarify principles and to furnish a guide to procedure.

7. To list many of the problems of school organization, class teaching, and community relations, and to give such sources of information as will enable one to work out satisfactory solutions.

JOHN C. ALMACK

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EDUCATION FOR CITIZENSHIP



INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER I

THE MEANING AND PROBLEM OF CIVIC EDUCATION

Education and citizenship. Life consists of many interests and activities. Without these not only living itself would be impossible, but also most of its satisfactions. Much activity is given over to providing for the physical needs. Food, clothing, shelter, and care in sickness must be supplied. Of less importance, but still necessary to life, are the activities centering around games and sports and what are commonly called leisure-time occupations. Most of these are carried on not alone, but with the coöperation of others. If one faces the problems of life without help and without guidance, he meets them very imperfectly, and may fail wholly to satisfy his needs. Others of more experience and broader training are able to give him assistance that prevents mistakes and adds to his success. The process by which the transfer of this help from one person to another or others is made may be called education.

For convenience in carrying on the process and in thinking about it, the activities of life are often classified into a few great groups. For example, there are those activities mentioned above which are concerned with supplying the physical needs of life. These may be called the vocational group. Another group is made up of leisure-time occupations. Still another deals with the maintenance and pro-

motion of health. The fourth of the great groups is composed of all the activities which are directed primarily toward social coöperation and social control. This group includes all such matters as enable the individual to play his part in the wider group affairs. Just as the individual needs instruction and guidance in meeting physical needs, handling his leisure time, caring for his health, and preparing for his vocation, so he also needs help in preparing for participation in organized civic life. The process of training him to understand civic society, and to do his share in carrying on civic enterprises, makes up education for citizenship.

The broad purpose of education for citizenship. Education is more than attending school, learning things from books, and passing examinations. It is more than reading, reciting, and taking part in class activities. These are but the means by which the educational process is carried on. The real purpose of education is to produce desirable changes in human beings. The only way to judge whether the conduct is desirable or not is to measure its effect upon others, as well as the effect upon the individual. Any of the great groups of activities are therefore not without their civic relationships. If civic life is to be efficient and satisfying, vocations, avocations, and health activities must be carried on with due regard to the rights and welfare of all.

In a democracy, citizenship activities and relations are obviously more important than any others. The individual is endowed with a large measure of freedom. He must necessarily assume as large a burden of responsibility. Citizenship is far more than faithful voting on election day. It is far more than memorizing the names of officials or the facts of political organization. At the very least it must include such ideals and objectives as the following:

1. Knowledge of the function and structure of civic organizations, and of their methods of work.

2. Experiences in coöperative activities directed toward the achievement of a common purpose, and for the common good.
3. Ideals and habits of moral conduct, embracing group activities as well as the affairs of individuals.
4. Experience in carrying on social activities without the school situation, and comprising the school and the outside community.
5. An appreciation of the civic responsibility of himself, and of the associations to which he belongs.
6. An understanding of the claims which the larger organizations, such as the Nation, have upon his loyalty, ability, and service.
7. An appreciation of the benefits which come to him through his membership in society.
8. Willingness and zeal in promoting the good of the whole group through the removal of defects and ills, and through the promotion of direct improvements.

The present importance of education for citizenship. Citizenship has always been the avowed aim of education in stable, civilized states. In our own country, it has been especially emphasized, and never more so than in recent years. The present emphasis upon civic education should not be taken to mean that the education of the past has failed to produce good citizens. It signifies rather that we have new and difficult problems which our citizens must solve. Because of the changed conditions of modern life, we need to change our instruction so that it will fill the new demands.

The changes which have been responsible for greater emphasis upon civic education have been numerous. Our earlier unity has been disturbed by the coming of thousands of immigrants, with ideals, culture levels, and experiences that differ widely from our own. The expansion of industry and the development of invention have brought many new problems. They have made life far more complex and more difficult to understand. Even the mere growth of the country in area and population has added to the complexity of

our civic life. The frontier, which for three centuries provided unlimited economic and social opportunities for all, has disappeared. Population is becoming congested in large cities. Some rural areas are becoming more thickly populated; others are losing in population.

Changes in ways of living and in incidental opportunities for education have gone along with the changes listed above. Specialization has created a demand for special training. X Industrial organization is such that there is little or no place to-day for intelligent apprentice training. The home has become more highly specialized, and has lost many of the educational activities that once characterized it. The community, too, is organized in a far more formal fashion than in pioneer days. On the one hand, therefore, we have more numerous and more difficult civic problems. On the other, we have fewer informal agencies to provide the needed education. The result is to put new and heavier obligations upon our social institutions — of which the school stands first — in training for intelligent citizenship.

The special responsibility of the school. The duty of training for citizenship rests mainly with the school. No other institution is prepared to do this directly. The home, the church, the press, organized industry, and associations of many kinds perform valuable educational services. In many ways they help to make for better citizenship, and no plan of training would be complete that ignored them. Civic education, however, is not their main purpose, any more than teaching spelling is their main purpose. They organize no continuous and comprehensive courses in civic education. They employ no body of well-trained teachers to reach every boy and girl in the country with civic training and guidance. Their effort is supplemental, and often uncoördinated.

The school, however, is the special instrument designed

and supported to educate in the national purpose. We have no state church with a priesthood in the employ of the government. We have no national army into which every young man must go for training and discipline. We have no all-embracing social organization directly responsible to the Nation except the public school. The people have created the school for the civic purpose, and support it in its performance of this function. More money is being spent for the maintenance of the school every year. Buildings and equipment are being added. Compulsory school laws are being extended, and more rigidly enforced. Evidently the people believe that the school can and should train for citizenship.

✓ **The relation of civic education to other subjects.** One of the difficulties connected with the organization of a new subject is to mark it off from others. Efficiency demands that there be no unnecessary duplication of material. We have seen that it is not easy to separate the group of activities which is called civic from vocations, avocations, and health. The problem involved here is one of distinguishing between the experiences of life, which are clearly civic and those which are clearly not-civic. On the one hand, it is of supreme importance that a narrow view be avoided. On the other hand, civic education must not be made to include too much. The principles below are set down to indicate roughly what the field includes, from the point of view of the author:

1. Civic education is more than education in government. While the institution known as the State is the dominating aspect of life, it is not the whole of it in a civic sense. Government itself is only a part of the function of the State. To teach only the form and function of government would be to omit much material of civic value.
2. Civic education is not training in certain mechanical skills and items of formal knowledge unrelated to social welfare and

- needs. Only when as a matter of use or participation these elements enter into group life do they become civic. The mechanics of reading, arithmetic, stenography, and machine operation may be classified as not-civic.
3. Subjects may be distinguished also on the basis of whether they contribute directly or indirectly to citizenship. Where the civic aim is paramount, we may say the subjects and activities have direct values. Where the civic aim is secondary, we may say it has indirect values.
 4. In the class of subjects whose main aim is to contribute to citizenship may be placed history, civics, economics, sociology, geography, and political science.
 5. Of equal importance with these subjects may be placed such group activities as school government, civic leagues, Boy Scouts, athletics, assemblies, welfare leagues, student body associations, and school and community organizations. If these affairs do not contribute largely to citizenship, they have little or no justification for being in the school.
 6. The second type serves other purposes besides the purely civic. In this class may be enumerated mathematics, science, Latin, bookkeeping, manual training, music, art, and grammar. They possess a large element of civic value, and when rightly taught may be as useful as the social sciences.
 7. Associated with the subjects in which civic values are secondary or indirect are the organizations and activities which are related to them. These are useful to give motive to conduct, and to supplement the class teaching. Among them may be mentioned glee clubs, science clubs, drama leagues, and art associations.

Citizenship and society. Society is more embracing and broader than the State. It is as old as humanity. We have seen that education is an institution which has been created by society to serve its purposes. The State is another social institution, served directly by the educational organization called the school. The school must serve the State, and the State must serve society. We saw that the school to justify itself must identify its ideals and activities with the needs of the State — namely, good citizenship. By the same line of

reasoning we see that the school must identify itself with the aims and objectives of society.

The leading aim of society is to improve human welfare. The fewer the ills and privations of life, and the greater the happiness of humanity, the closer we approach toward the social ideal. This ideal is often called social efficiency. It is even oftener called democracy. It is not a goal that is absolutely attainable. However, it is the goal for which intelligent people strive, because progress toward it means better conditions of living. We call our country a democracy because its fundamental aim is to do everything it can to advance the general welfare. A group which directs all its forces and energies toward the realization of a perfect democracy may be called an efficient civic society.

The well-organized school is, therefore, simply a miniature of society. It has the same general aims and objectives. It has much of the same structure, and carries on much the same activities. It carries these on by the best methods in use in society. It seeks to promote the welfare of the members of the school group. If it is living up to its opportunity, though, it does not stop there. It should project its strength and influence into the larger society, as far as is practicable and possible. Under such conditions as have been described there is no break between the school and society itself. The transition from one to the other is easy and gradual. The boundaries between the two are arbitrary, not real. The school becomes a special organized civic agency, working for the maintenance and improvement of society.

The problem of civic education. We may look at the problem of civic education simply from the point of view of the numbers who stand in need of it. These include two main groups. First are those whose relations to our Government are indefinite, or who occupy the status of subjects of the State without being in possession of the rights and

privileges of citizens. A second group is composed of adults who are below standard in respect to one or more reasonable civic requirements. Still a third group is composed of the immature boys and girls of school age. The last group furnishes the bulk of the pupils enrolled in the schools, and must always be considered the ones to whom we owe a special and deep obligation.

The first group comprises those who have emigrated to America, but who have not yet become naturalized citizens. As a class, they are unacquainted with our ideals, our customs, our traditions, our ways of thinking, and our modes of life. Their civic status is more or less anomalous. As subjects of other states, they owe us no civic allegiance. They are, however, a special responsibility for which we are answerable to their home country. They lack many advantages and privileges which belong to citizens. They need education which will help them solve their most pressing problems, and which will prepare them for their duties and responsibilities. We have about four and one half million aliens who are over twenty-one years old. This is a little more than one twentieth of our total adult population. The distribution by sexes is approximately equal.

The second group is composed of the illiterates. There is some overlapping between this group and the preceding, but it is well to keep in mind that much of our illiteracy is found among the native-born. The illiterates may be considered a special problem of considerable difficulty. They cannot take advantage of the means for self-education found in books, newspapers, and magazines. They cannot read safety signs and rules of health. They have no basis for forming independent judgments in most of the civic fields. They are at the mercy of those who distribute anti-social propaganda. They cannot perform their parts successfully in public affairs.

Illiteracy is dangerous to organized democracy. It is doubly dangerous when the illiterate is an alien. Over four and one third million illiterate adults were reported in the last census. A little more than a half-million additional are between the ages of ten and twenty. The actual is probably greater than census figures indicate. At all events, the combined total of adult aliens and adult illiterates equals all the pupils enrolled in the first and second grades of the public schools.

So far as numbers alone are an index, we may say that our biggest problem of civic education is concerned with those of school age. Only about two thirds of all boys and girls of school age are enrolled in the schools. Those of school age, but not in school, are twelve million in number and constitute a special problem of civic education. Ordinarily its solution depends upon better compulsory school laws and their stricter enforcement, and upon the presence of continuation opportunities, such as part-time schools, evening schools, and the like. Something of the magnitude of the school problem may be seen from an examination of the figures given below:

TOTAL NUMBER OF PERSONS OF SCHOOL AGE AND IN SCHOOL

AGES	TOTAL NUMBER	IN SCHOOL	PERCENTAGE
Five to twenty	33,250,870	21,373,976	64.3
Five to six	4,686,154	1,922,125	41.0
Seven to thirteen	15,306,793	13,869,010	90.6
Fourteen to fifteen	3,907,710	3,124,129	79.9
Sixteen to seventeen	3,828,131	1,644,061	42.9
Eighteen to twenty	5,522,082	814,651	14.8

The number of those youth of school age who can really be called in need of further education depends somewhat upon the minimum requirements which are set. If gradu-

ation from an eight-grade elementary school is deemed sufficient formal preparation for the duties of citizenship, about two per cent of the total population are qualified annually. The total number of pupils who do some eighth-grade work is about seventy per cent of the fourteen-year age group. Thirty years ago only fifty per cent of the fourteen-year-olds were reaching the eighth grade, indicating that the schools are now reaching an increasingly larger proportion of the population. Even with this reasonable standard for civic participation, it may be seen that entirely too large a percentage leave the school every year insufficiently prepared.

The high school and the junior college are looked to for competent civic leadership. A little less than fourteen per cent of the eighteen-year-old group (corresponding roughly to the senior class in high school) are in attendance. The greatest elimination and retardation evidently occurs between the eighth- and the ninth-year groups. While, as has been stated, over seventy per cent of the fourteen-year-olds are found in school in the eighth grade, only thirty-six per cent of the fifteen-year-olds are in school in the first year of the high school. If this gap were successfully bridged, we might anticipate a much larger percentage of high-school graduates. As matters stand at present, about one fifth of one per cent of the total population graduate each year from high school. The number of leaders contributed by the colleges is relatively small as the attendance is only three and one half per cent of the total age group, nineteen to twenty-two inclusive, normally in attendance. The conclusion seems justified that we are neglecting to give high-school and college training to many who have the potential qualities of civic leadership.

Types of instruction required. Another problem is to determine the types of instruction which should be provided. Necessity demands that these types be selected in view of

present needs. Particularly is this applicable to those adults and youth who have been denied educational opportunities. As methods of forecasting future needs are developed, some attention should be given to preparing for them. On the whole, it may be said that the education which trains most effectively to meet present-day situations is also of most worth for the future. This is nothing more than training in the approved activities of group life on the level of the person being taught.

From the teaching point of view, a classification of types of instruction may be made as follows. These also overlap slightly, and should not necessarily be separated in teaching. The types indicated are:

1. *Civic knowledge.* This consists of facts and principles which the citizen must know in order to enable him to pick out proper lines of conduct: to tell right from wrong, useful from harmful, and the lawful from the unlawful. It will include problems drawn from the family, the community, the State, the Nation, and the world. As an example we may consider such problems as relate to natural resources, public finance, labor, health, dependency, and immigration.
2. *Civic judgment.* Civic judgment demands intelligence in respect to new situations. While knowledge is essentially the basis of such decision, it is concerned with programs that have action as their ultimate outcome. The evaluation of character might be included.
3. *Civic habits.* Instruction in this field requires the development of skill and persistence in performing routine matters of civic importance. Social and personal adaptability are examples.
4. *Civic ideals and attitudes.* These embody all the feelings and motives which accompany desirable forms of civic behavior. This also comprises standards of conduct and achievement.

Motives of conduct. It is not enough merely to supply teaching agencies and opportunities. One of the main problems is to get students to take advantage of the values of-

ferred. They may know what is best to do, and their judgment may tell them to do it, and still they may remain inactive or even do the wrong thing. Routine matters may be cared for by making the proper responses habitual. In situations that arise infrequently, or where there is a large amount of freedom allowed in making a choice, there is need for an appeal to basic human motives.

Among beginners the particular term "human welfare" has little meaning. This is also true of the undeveloped adults. They tend to see things from the point of view of their own welfare. As a consequence, the teacher is forced to commence instruction on the social level of the person she is teaching. Certainly it should never stop there, but should proceed to the unselfish point of view as soon as possible. The highest stage of development is reached when service to others becomes the guiding aim. This is also the point when living gives the greatest satisfaction to the individual, and is responsible for the definition of personal success as "self-realization in social service." However, in developing the broader outlook and motive, the teacher may often have to rely upon motives more individualistic. The following are typical:

1. *The motive of self-interest.* Civic affairs have a bearing upon one's income, upon the possession of property, personal security, helps to determine his professional and business status, and affects his freedom and independence.
2. *The motive of love of approval.* Every one finds satisfaction in the approval of his group. It encourages energy, display, and self-expression. It may result in position, reputation, and fame. Likewise, disapproval brings unhappiness. One may refrain from conduct which the group disapproves because it brings blame and punishment.
3. *The motive of sympathy.* This is the feeling of satisfaction which comes from being one of a unified group. It is what is often called group consciousness when it means accord. Kindliness and friendship grow out of sympathy.

4. *The motive of pride in the community, the nation, and society.* This includes loyalty, dislike for group enemies, sentiment for home and country, and gratitude for social benefits.

The educational program. Having stated the meaning and the problem of civic education, we may next outline some of the steps to be taken in carrying out the civic objectives and in solving the problem. The program should be far-reaching and broad enough to afford a sound working basis. Although the individual teacher is limited in what she can accomplish with the resources at her command, the needs themselves will differ. Therefore, while some teachers concern themselves with one aspect or phase of the whole problem, others will be occupied with different phases of it. Many other things will prove beyond the powers of the teacher working alone, and will challenge the abilities of the whole teaching profession. Still others can be solved only through coöperation with the whole social group.

So much by way of general introduction to the problem. The chapters which follow are given over to a discussion of some of the chief elements in a program of civic education. Generally speaking, the method used has been to state the problem, analyze it briefly, and to indicate a course of action in accord with civic principles. Many illustrations are given, showing what teachers are doing and have done. Practices that anticipate the future are stressed, rather than those which are simply time-honored and conventional. The complete list of suggestions for teaching citizenship is greater than any teacher is likely to be able to use. There is, however, an advantage in having a wide range for choice, and to meet special situations. The leading topics taken up are as follows:

I. How to put the school on a civic basis. (Part I.)

1. A more democratic organization, including the greater equalization of opportunity, and a broader diffusion of administrative responsibilities.

2. Teacher-student coöperation in school government.
 3. The development of a democratic program of social activities.
- II. How to select and utilize civic materials and methods. (Part II.)
1. Laying the moral foundation of citizenship, and realizing civic values in the social sciences and the correlated subjects.
 2. Developing methods which foster initiative, leadership, coöperation, and the spirit of service.
 3. Improving citizenship through methods of personal guidance.
 4. Combining individual and social methods in utilizing civic opportunities provided by special occasions.
- III. How to integrate the school and the community. (Part III.)
1. Integration through community service, and through school service.
 2. School and community coöperation in Americanization.
 3. Professional service to the school and to the community.

Basic principles of civic education. In order to be successful, civic education must be directed by certain basic principles. These principles are not distinct from education in general. They draw their authority from experience, and from research in psychology and sociology. They are not to be regarded as absolute, but should be modified as the data on which they are based warrant such modification. Furthermore, adaptation to particular conditions is always necessary. There is general agreement that the principles below are workable:

1. The experiences and activities which comprise the educational program should be on the level of those for whom they are intended.
2. Content and method should be selected which have as wide a use as possible. Whatever is most vital, provided it falls within the comprehension of the pupils, should be given preference.
3. The experiences should be selected from the best of the life of

to-day. In so doing as much of the original setting should be preserved as possible.

4. Motivation should be provided by having a defined objective which is satisfying to the pupils.
5. The program should be continuous and progressive. This means that it should increase somewhat in difficulty with the years, and should carry over into life outside of school, and into the after-school life of the pupils.
6. Every teaching exercise should result in something definite and concrete.

The place of the teacher. The teacher has both the responsibilities for and the opportunities of civic leadership. In no other profession does society and the State repose so much confidence. As she teaches to-day, so will the next generation be. The safety and stability of our institutions in the future all depend upon the lessons taught to-day in the school. It is within the teacher's power to determine whether we shall have in the future a free and enlightened democracy, or an autocracy with its castes, servility, and tyranny. The teacher must do her work wisely and well if education is to be a strong force for social progress. We cannot expect to improve the conditions under which people live without efficient universal education. To develop boys and girls into happy, useful, and loyal citizens of a great democracy is a task worthy of the highest type of ability and character. This is the work of the teacher.

Summary. There are four main objectives in education: the vocational; the avocational; physical efficiency; and citizenship. The most important of all of these is the last. Changes which are now taking place in the social and economic life of this country serve to cause an especial emphasis to be placed to-day upon training for citizenship. The school has the main responsibility for this instruction. As a subject it embraces far more than government. As a means of progress its efficiency depends largely upon the degree to

which it identifies itself with the social program, and upon the spirit and zeal of the teacher.

EXERCISES AND PROBLEMS

1. Spend a few minutes examining this book. Read the introduction, note the purpose of the volume, the subjects treated, how to use the index, the purpose and character of the exercises and problems at the end of each chapter, and the leading references. Make a first rough judgment as to its aim, scope, and effectiveness of organization.
2. Explain why it is necessary that the main point of emphasis in education be occasionally shifted or adjusted.
3. Account for the modern tendency to put greater stress upon training for citizenship. How has the World War affected this tendency with us?
4. What is your opinion of the statement "To think of progress as a certainty is a dangerous superstition"?
5. What is the fallacy in the assumption that the whole burden of training for citizenship should be borne by courses in civics?
6. Add other desirable civic qualities to the list given in this chapter. Choose two of the most important, and analyze them into terms of child conduct in school.
7. Summarize the influences in your community which have been responsible for progress.
8. Read the preface to some text in civics, and frame the author's conception of the purpose to be realized through the subject.
9. Outline a series of problems for a group of pupils, your purpose being to develop a concept of the good citizen. One approach would be through the study of the best citizen each pupil knows, another through the study of great Americans. Bring out civic qualities, examples of desirable conduct, handicaps overcome, leading influences in life.
10. Compare the advantages France has in developing citizenship with those enjoyed by this country.
11. Explain how the efficiency of the school is increased through aligning it with the general social program.
12. Contrast the school life with which you are familiar with the community life. How are they alike? How different? What are the principal changes needed to bring them into closer resemblance?
13. Of what value is it to the teacher to conceive of life as an active process? In taking the point of view that changes usually come about gradually?
14. Supplement the preceding topics, exercises, and problems by others

of a similar nature, or by those which introduce a new point of view of the same subject.

15. Add a few references to the list which follows. Point out what it is that is particularly helpful about the references you recommend.

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PART I

PUTTING THE SCHOOL ON A CIVIC BASIS

CHAPTER II

CIVIC VALUES IN THE SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

The purpose of school administration. In the preceding chapter, training for citizenship was stated as the principal aim of the school. In order to accomplish this purpose, the school must be organized and administered in the light of this aim. Administrative methods differ according to the types of schools they serve. A school which has knowledge-getting as its purpose has one type of administrative organization; a school which avows mental discipline as its objective has another. A school which trains for citizenship requires a still different form. Even in citizenship schools there are administrative differences. A school which trains citizens for an autocracy is autocratic in its organization; a school which trains citizens for a democracy should be democratic in its organization. In either case its purpose is to realize the aim of the school as economically and successfully as possible.

In this volume emphasis will be placed upon that type of school organization the aim of which is democratic citizenship. Such a school should afford good general working conditions, should offer many opportunities for experiences of civic value, and should put no obstacles in the way of the civic program. The indirect effect alone of such a school is considerable. It sets a good example to the community. Its presence supplies an atmosphere of freedom, an attitude of coöperation, and a feeling of good-will entirely lacking in the inflexible formality of a school autocracy. The teacher has a heavy responsibility to discharge in making the school into a genuine democracy.

School organization in a democracy. There are many differences between school organization in a democracy and school organization in an autocracy. In the first case, the schools are supported by the public and are open to all without charge. No distinctions are made on account of wealth or social position. The people coöperate in the external management; they initiate policies and ratify them. They hold their chosen representatives to account for their actions. On the other hand, in an autocracy external control is taken from the community. Class distinctions are evident. The people have little or no voice in the formation of policies. The teachers are mere subordinates to execute the will of the higher authorities.

An illustration will serve to make the differences clearer. The pre-war schools of Germany and the present English system offer a fair contrast. In the former case, approximately eight per cent of the youth were trained for leadership, and ninety-two per cent were trained to be followers. For the first class there were established middle and higher schools and universities. For the second there were only elementary and continuation schools, intended to give training in obedience and industry. In England, on the contrary, we find the most democratic school system in Europe. There is an open road from the elementary school to the university, as in America. The right of the State to set up minimum standards has been asserted, but at the same time there has been offered a wide variety of educational opportunities, and a wide margin for the exercise of local initiative and enterprise.

Types of American schools contrasted. American schools, while greatly influenced by traditional ideals and by inherited practices, have nevertheless shown a commendable spirit of independence and enterprise. As a result we have to-day two main types of schools: (1) the type in which tra-

dition predominates, and (2) the modern socialized type. The presence of the first type gives us the task of transforming it into the new citizenship school; the second type furnishes a worthy example for study and following.

Generally speaking, the traditional school is characterized by the following features:

1. Objectives of knowledge-getting or mind-development.
2. Large school board, committee type of control, administration lodged in the hands of one person.
3. Schools governed by orders or regulations issued from a central office. Insistence upon strict obedience to the letter. Little opportunity for appeal, conference, or coöperation.
4. Public not taken into the confidence of the authorities: usually uninformed as to policies and practices. "Star Chamber" methods not uncommon.
5. Rigid course of study administered by examinations; emphasis upon form; narrow range of offerings.
6. Government autocratic, discipline severe, and of the military type.
7. Methods formal, emphasis upon drill.
8. Few contacts with the community.
9. Arbitrary rating of teachers, prevalence of the "hire and fire" system.
10. Facilities meager, and in use only during the school day.

The second type, the socialized school, is a civic institution. It is designed to help solve American problems, improve and perpetuate American institutions, and expand American influence and ideals. It gives training in the obligations and responsibilities of practical life. It puts especial stress upon civic duties and relations. Its service value to the pupils and to the community is paramount. Its motto is quality rather than quantity. Its leading characteristics may be summarized as follows:

1. Objective, good citizenship. ✓
2. Governed by a small elective board, legislating and formulating policies as a board, and not as individuals or as com-

mittees. Fullest publicity given to the actual and contemplated acts.

3. Equal opportunities, flexible course of study, differentiated courses, continuation courses.
 4. Facilities used to utmost: playgrounds, libraries, and gymnasias open continuously.
 5. Cosmopolitanism rather than specialization; each school a duplicate of best in community and national life.
 6. Diffused administration; a free opportunity for the expression of the various points of view respecting the educational program.
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The task of changing the traditional school into the socialized school is seen to be no small one. In general, the points of attack should be those which are most likely to yield success. Two of these points of attack in particular challenge the efforts of teachers, and are most promising in results. They are: (1) efforts looking toward an equalization of opportunity as between pupils; and (2) the diffusion of administrative duties and responsibilities among pupils and teachers.

The equalization of opportunity. There are two main divisions to the problem of equalizing opportunity: (1) as among different States and school systems; and (2) as among the schools of the same city or other districts, and among different classes and individuals in the same school. The first problem is mainly a matter of finance, and lies largely outside of the teacher's work and opportunities. To accomplish this first type of equalization the poorer districts shall have to be given increased support, drawn from State and National sources. Only by this means can they provide longer school terms, good school buildings, suitable teaching equipment, and well-qualified teachers. There is no justifiable educational reason why rural schools should not be the equal of city schools, in affording educational opportunity, nor why the schools of one State should not be ap-

proximately as good as those of another. The duty of bringing about a better equalization of opportunity among different schools rests, however, with the people. The teacher can be of most help here by pointing the way, and by educating citizens to follow it.

With the second feature of equalization, the burden of responsibility is more clearly one which teachers must share. There are four things to be done: (1) to offer continuation opportunities for those who are forced out of school to go to work; (2) to offer a variety of courses in the school, adapted to varying life-aims and interests; (3) to offer courses adapted to different levels of intellectual ability; and (4) to supplement inferior home and community conditions with an adequate school life. We shall consider each of these briefly, in order, that the reader may better understand what is needed.

1. Education for workers. There are two types of schools which may be provided for those who are compelled by economic circumstances to go to work. They are the part-time school, and the evening school. The evening school has the added value of supplying the means of education to adults. The part-time school is a day school where juvenile workers receive instruction before or after working hours, or for a half-day session. The following may be accepted as a fair description of its operation:

The State law requires children who have been given employment certificates to attend school part of the day. The district attendance officer lists those coming under the provisions of the law and orders them to report at school at certain designated hours.

The law as a rule applies to those pupils under sixteen who have not completed the eighth grade. Occasionally the teaching may be done in the places of employment, instead of in the school. Courses are, under those circumstances, likely to be closely related to the occupation in which the pupils are engaged. The subjects of study are usually the common branches and vocations. Specific training

in citizenship is afforded through social science and social activities. The effect of the introduction of part-time schools has often been to cause pupils to return to the regular day schools, sometimes because the day schools are preferred, sometimes because of renewed interest in education.

The evening school provides the second type of opportunity for workers. The hours are usually from seven to nine, and attendance is in part voluntary. The social life is carried on much as in day schools. Discipline is usually a minor problem, due in large part to the absence of formality in organization and control. Free access is afforded to the library, gymnasium, and swimming pool. Courses designated "Citizenship" are often required of all. A certificate of graduation is given for the completion of each semester course. In some communities, evening schools have become so popular that practically the entire working population is in attendance. The curricular offerings often rival or excel the day school, as the following list of subjects, offered by one evening school, proves:

Americanization	Dressmaking	Millinery
Auto repairing	Elementary branches	Nursing
Basketry	Freehand drawing	Orchestra
Blue-print reading	French	Penmanship
Bookkeeping	History	Printing
Business English	Journalism	Public speaking
Carpentry	Literature	Salesmanship
Citizenship	Machine shop	Sheet-metal work
Cooking	Mechanical drawing	Stenography

When well managed, evening schools are an effective agency for promoting citizenship. The students as a rule appreciate their opportunities. They are loyal, serious, and show a fine spirit of coöperation. The social affairs provided by the school may be the only ones to which many of the students have access. There is probably no better way to guide the leisure hours of young working-people than by

opening an evening school. Judged by its present status, it may well be considered one of the most important instruments of democracy.

2. Varied courses. Education can never function to the fullest degree of efficiency unless it seems worth while. This requires that courses be offered in line with different life-aims and interests. Some pupils need literary and college preparatory courses, some scientific and mechanical courses, some commercial courses. In order to serve the greatest number, our schools cannot be partial to academic lines. One third of all our workers are engaged in agriculture, and almost as many in manufacturing and mechanical industry. The next largest number, one fifth of the total, is in transportation and commerce. Only one twentieth are engaged in public and professional service, though often only the needs of pupils preparing for professional life have been considered in selecting the subjects of instruction.

In recent years, a good amount of progress has been made in the direction of a broader and more vital curriculum. The inadequacy of instruction in the so-called fundamentals alone, for civic and vocational life, has become apparent. A reorganization has been necessitated which has assumed three main forms. In the elementary school the new organization is known as the work-study-play plan, or platoon system. Bridging the gap between the elementary grades and the high school comes the junior high school plan. For the secondary division stands the cosmopolitan high school. The essential features of each of these will be given:

The work-study-play plan. This may include grades 1 to 8, or only grades 1 to 6. The school day is from six to eight hours long. The program is balanced between the traditional and the special subjects. The facilities are in use constantly. While one group is being taught the academic subjects, another is at work in the special rooms. Plays and

games are well directed and supervised. Playgrounds, libraries, gymnasiums, auditoriums, shops, and laboratories are open evenings and on Saturdays and Sundays. Assembly teaching is a part of the regular program, and social activities are greatly emphasized.

The especial advantages of the work-study-play school are its economy, broadened curriculum, specialization of teaching and equipment, wider use of the school plant, easier discipline, a more varied and interesting school day, and better opportunities for training in citizenship. The special value of adjustment to varied interests and needs is a strong feature.

The more varied offerings of the work-study-play school may be seen by comparing a typical curriculum with the curriculum of a traditional type school. The work-study-play program given below is approximately that followed in Detroit:

TRADITIONAL SCHOOL

Reading
Arithmetic
Spelling
Writing
History and civics
Language and grammar
Physiology and hygiene
Geography

WORK-STUDY-PLAY SCHOOL

Traditional subjects
Music
Art
Nature study and gardening
Manual training
Domestic science and art
Mechanical drawing
Physical training
Plays and games
Literature
Dramatics
Auditorium exercises

The junior high school. The essential characteristics in the junior high school type of organization are curriculum differentiation and the specialization of teaching. Along with these advantages it carries directed study, educational

and vocational guidance, socialized class exercises, many kinds of community service and coöperation, promotion by subject, better teaching, homogeneous grouping, and many ways of discovering special aptitudes, capacities, and interests. The curriculum usually includes a number of "constants," some of which are required of all, and a large number of "variables" or electives. The degree of enrichment which the new organization has brought may be seen by comparing the following program with the list of traditional subjects in the old-type grammar school:

CONSTANTS	VARIABLES
English	Foreign languages
Social science	Commercial branches
Hygiene	Fine arts
Mathematics	Agriculture
Music	Printing
Practical arts	Drafting
Domestic arts	Machine shop
Manual training	Plumbing
General science	Tailoring
Physical training	Shoe repairing
	Bookbinding
	Basketry

One disadvantage may be urged against the junior high school from the civic point of view. This is found in the segregation of the pupils of the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades from the elementary school below and from the senior high school above. This not only breaks up the continuity of the school, but isolates a large percentage of the school population. The associations with those younger and older which characterize normal life conditions are denied. There is lessened opportunity to cultivate the feeling of responsibility for the younger pupils. The six-six plan remedies partially at least this defect by consolidating the junior and senior high schools. The adoption of the platoon plan with

the addition of a comprehensive or cosmopolitan high school in the same building would have the effect of removing the disadvantage altogether.

The cosmopolitan high school. The cosmopolitan high school is designed to secure differentiation of subjects in line with pupil interests and aims, without segregating the pupils into liberal and industrial schools. The specialized vocational high school, or the specialized college preparatory high school, are a "species of social predestination which is well suited to an autocratic government like that of Germany — where the class system was deliberately cultivated — but which is wholly unsuited to a democracy like ours." Such a reorganization is needed as will make for continuous and uninterrupted opportunity for every child in useful work, service, and democratic association, not only with those who look forward to a similar vocation, but with those of diverse interests and vocational aims. The curriculum offerings of such a high school might include such courses as the following:

General	Industrial (coöperative)
Classical	Agricultural
Domestic science	Commercial
Manual training	Music
Scientific	Art

3. Adjustment to varying abilities. The science of psychology has demonstrated the wide range of individual differences which are found among school children. To overlook these differences, and to fail to provide for them, is as undemocratic as to discriminate on any other basis. Moreover, teaching methods which fail to take individual differences into account are ineffective. In order that pupils may progress according to their zeal and ability, two general methods of securing flexible promotion in schools where pupils are taught in groups have been developed: (1) the

differentiated course method, and (2) the single course method with groups moving at different rates.

Under the first method, three or more courses are prepared in each subject, each on a level with the abilities of the groups for which they are intended, and each requiring a year to complete. Promotions may be as frequently as every six weeks, at which time pupils may be transferred from one group to another. The following description will serve to illustrate this method:

1. Course A. For pupils of superior ability. Course differs from the others in that it covers a wider field and is more difficult. About twenty per cent of the pupils would ordinarily be assigned to this course.
2. Course B. For pupils of average ability. Not so difficult nor so extensive as Course A. Adapted to about sixty per cent of the pupils.
3. Course C. For pupils of less than average ability. Contains the minimum requirements. Adapted to about twenty per cent of the enrollment. Differentiation may be secured by assigning different subjects to each group, excepting in the fundamentals.

Another method, which secures approximately the same results as the foregoing, may be followed by teachers where differentiated courses are not available. It consists of the varied assignment. As worked out very successfully by one teacher, the plan is described as follows:

In order to adjust the materials to the levels of ability in my class three assignments are made. The minimum is to be completed by every pupil. A second assignment is made either of more difficult exercises or a larger quantity of the material of the first assignment. The average and the superior pupils are expected to complete all of this as well as the first assignment. The third assignment consists of special problems and exercises. It is completed only by the superior pupils.

In neither of the cases which have been given are the

groups designated by names which would mark them as superior, inferior, or average. Promotion is based upon actual performance, and any pupil is fully credited for zeal or special ability.

The second method of adjusting instruction to varying levels of ability uses a single course of study. The superior pupils, however, complete it within a shorter period than the average and inferior. For example, the superior group might complete the elementary grades in six years, the average group in eight years, and the inferior group in ten years. All groups are covering the same materials, but are moving at a different rate. In this method, as in the first, pupils might be shifted from one group to another as their needs and abilities warranted it. This method of adjustment is far inferior to the one described in the preceding paragraph.

Various methods of adjustment. In addition to the devices which have just been described, there are others which have a wide use. Which plan or plans is best can be decided only after a thoughtful consideration of the special conditions in the school and the community. Special methods which have been tried out may be classified as follows:

1. Adjustments to mental and social conditions: classes for the subnormal, opportunity classes (bright pupils), over-age classes, home-training classes, disciplinary classes, individual instruction.
2. Adjustments to physical conditions: classes for the blind, deaf, cripples, epileptics, tubercular, and children with speech defects.

4. **Provision of an adequate school life.** The fourth and last thing which was mentioned that teachers might do to help equalize opportunities, within a school system, was the establishment within the system of a rich and adequate school life to replace the unsatisfactory home and school

relationships so frequently found. This is largely a matter of the establishment of the right kind of school and community coöperation, and in this the teacher can render very important service. This fourth phase of the problem has a number of different angles, which we shall discuss under the headings given below.

Coöperation in administration. Education is a great coöperative enterprise. The right of every citizen in a democracy to share in the management of public affairs is often regarded as indisputable. The very nature of education renders the combined effort of pupils, teachers, patrons, and school authorities essential. The chief question is not whether or not there should be joint participation, but it is rather how it can be best organized. Essentially there are two problems involved: (1) how to organize thought; and (2) how to organize effort.

There is no disposition to deny to school authorities the central position in formulating policies. But greater democracy in school administration means added zest in work and added efficiency. Effort becomes far more successful when all parties concerned have had a share in its planning. In a school system where the life and spirit is one of growth for administrators, teachers, and pupils, there will be an earnest effort on the part of all to build up a feeling of coöperation, good-will, and self-respect.

Teacher coöperation. Teacher coöperation in carrying on the work of the school is the expected thing. It is just as necessary in formulating policies. Perhaps, even in the latter case, there has never been a school where the teachers had no voice in the planning of objectives and methods by which they might be achieved. Wherever a principal or superintendent asks the advice or assistance of a teacher in the solution of an administrative problem, there teacher participation exists. The next step is to ask the advice and as-

sistance, not only of the individual teacher, but of groups of teachers. The first is informal coöperation; the latter is organized coöperation.

Informal coöperation is carried on in a number of ways. In one school the superintendent sends a letter every year to each teacher in the school system, asking for ideas and suggestions. In another school system teachers are invited to submit oral or written suggestions for school improvement at any time. A third method is found in the personal conference, where ideas are freely exchanged. In another school all policies are determined by a majority vote of the teachers, in regular business meetings, presided over by the principal. The last method may be made very successful in promoting discussion and investigation, and in developing a feeling of group solidarity.

Teacher councils. There are, however, schools in which the administrative authorities have disregarded democratic principles. There are others in which informal schemes of participation have not worked well. These reasons have led to the development of an organized system of teacher coöperation, through representative councils or cabinets. Membership in the council is by election by the teachers. The number of representatives differ in various cities, but is usually about twenty. Although the movement is less than ten years old, it is making rapid headway. Out of one hundred and thirty-one cities reporting, in 1921, seventy had some form of organized participation, the status of which was recognized by the school officials. Below are given some of the typical activities and accomplishments of these organizations:

1. Prepared a new course of study. In the process a careful investigation of teaching methods, community affairs, and testing devices was made. This is a very common form of participation.

2. Arranged programs for teachers' institutes, and meetings, and provided extension courses with university credit.
3. Made an extensive study of teachers' salaries, and recommended a new schedule to the superintendent.
4. Developed a teacher rating scheme.
5. Adopted textbooks by majority vote.
6. Aided in securing legislation for a pension law.
7. Miscellaneous: issued educational bulletins describing the work of the school, built up school spirit, raised professional standards, made recommendations on tenure, took the lead in welfare work, and was instrumental in having school improvements made.

There are three ways to initiate organized teacher-participation. Usually the superintendent invites the teachers to elect an advisory body, and outlines the field of its functions. At other times, coöperation begins through the teachers volunteering to help in some school task, such as those which have been given. In other cases, the teachers petition for a share in the management of the larger administrative affairs. Ordinarily, the first two methods would best be followed. If the third is followed, the request should be tactfully worded and supported, and should come from a coherent and responsible organization.

Pupil coöperation. Of late years there has come a clearer appreciation as well of the wealth of unused pupil resources. One can scarcely overrate the values in pupil coöperation in building up school spirit, and in performing special service for the school and the community. The benefits to the individuals are fully equal to the benefits received by the school. Only a few illustrations of pupil participation in school management are listed here, fuller discussion of methods of organization and special opportunities being reserved to later chapters:

1. The pupils of a junior high school arranged to carry on playground games during the summer. All pupils interested were

included. The school and city playgrounds and a number belonging to private owners were utilized.

2. The pupils of an intermediate school have charge of the beautification of schoolrooms and grounds.
3. The opening exercises in one school are planned and carried out by the children.
4. A high-school "visitors' committee" takes care of visitors, explains the work of the school, and shows them about the building.
5. In a grammar school, the lines are in charge of monitors elected by each room.

Community coöperation. The parents are the third great source of help in school administration. The willingness of patrons to coöperate grows as it is encouraged. A new interest in the schools is partly a product of work in its behalf. Furthermore, parent advice and assistance in any particular service is of itself worth while. At this time a few examples of what has been done are given, but the subject will be treated in detail later on:

1. A group of parents took over the duty of supplying playground facilities and supervision during the vacation season.
2. A committee of teachers, working on a course of study, received much source material and many helpful suggestions on what should be stressed and what should be passed over more lightly. The greatest value to the school lay in the warmer support which the policy of coöperation engendered.
3. In a campaign for a bond issue for buildings, the publicity was handled entirely by interested citizens.
4. A continuous exhibit, representative of the daily work of the school, was kept up by a committee of parents from the home-school association.
5. The annual "Accomplishment Day" program, in which public recognition of contributions to the school was made, was directed by the local civic league.

Minimum essentials in organization. The test of organ-

ization is efficiency in terms of its purpose. In a citizenship school, attention should be given to the manner in which results are secured, as well as to the results. Citizenship is opposed to the point of view that the ends justify the means. There is probably no situation in which government by a dictator is as efficient as government by intelligent assemblies. It is well to remember that despotism has never been the rule among an enlightened people. In any case, the exponent of democracy can put his faith in human happiness as the final and most perfect criterion of efficiency. On this basis, a few essentials of civic organization have been formulated. It should guarantee:

1. A fair field of endeavor without discrimination on account of age, race, mentality, physical equipment, and mental or social status.
2. A consideration of individual aims, abilities, and interests, and full credit for individual contributions.
3. A broad field of common interests and achievements.
4. Emphasis laid upon the social value rather than upon the individual value of activities.
5. Satisfaction in the process as well as in the results.
6. A field for the free play of all the civic forces: collective administration, collective responsibility, collective rewards.

Summary. The first step in making schools function in the training of citizens is to secure good working conditions. This is accomplished through organization. The organization must be in accord with the working objective of the school. This, with us, requires democratic methods. Two main essentials may be noted: (1) equalization of opportunity, and (2) coöperation in management. The first may be obtained through school extension, and the establishment of new types of schools — the work-study-play school, the junior high school, and the cosmopolitan high school. The second calls for a wider participation in school management by teachers, pupils, and patrons. In the socialized

school thus established efficiency should be computed by considering the satisfaction attending the educational process, as well as the satisfaction in the results themselves.

EXERCISES AND PROBLEMS

1. Contrast an autocratic school administration with a democratic school administration.
2. Show why it is difficult to realize democratic objectives in a school that is organized on an autocratic basis.
3. Point out a number of examples of the influence of European theories upon American education.
4. What is the most democratic feature of the American school system? Discuss.
5. Show the relative advantages of the trade school, from the civic standpoint.
6. Select a typical school of the traditional type, and indicate the changes which should be made in it in order to transform it into the modern citizenship school.
7. Discuss the classification of pupils on the basis of mental age, from the point of view of the probable influence on citizenship.
8. Explain the economies which result from the adoption of the work-study-play plan. Could you defend the plan on this ground, keeping in mind the civic objective?
9. Give as many reasons as you can for saying that the junior high school has greater civic advantages than the traditional grammar school.
10. How do you explain the fact that teachers' councils, and other forms of organized teacher participation, have developed only within recent years?
11. Discuss the relative merits of centralized and diffused administration. Is organized participation in the form of cabinets, councils, and committees necessary?
12. Report on school organization in a few selected foreign countries, and note (1) the degree to which administration is diffused, and (2) the extent to which democracy prevails in government and social life. Can you conclude that democracy in schools is associated with democracy in ideals and in life?
13. Why is it essential that the methods by which results were achieved be taken into consideration, in evaluating school efficiency, as well as the results themselves?
14. What are the principal tests which you would apply to a school to determine whether it is democratic or not? Compare your list with the ideals of education and government found in the preceding chapter.
15. Supplement these exercises and problems by adding others on the same subject.

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CHAPTER III

THE CIVIC CONTRIBUTIONS OF SCHOOL GOVERNMENT

The problem of government. The school cannot evade the problem of government. On the one hand, it is necessary to have a means of control in order to maintain school at all. On the other hand, training in self-government ought to be an essential part of any curriculum. It seems a self-evident proposition that we should teach democratic government. It is undeniable that the best way to teach it is through practice. The real problem is not whether self-government should be taught or not. The real task is to grade the instruction and the activities in government so that they are best adapted to the needs and abilities of the pupils. Looked at from this point of view, training in government differs but little from training in science, manual training, literature, or any other school subject. The main difference lies in the fact that government is also necessary in carrying on instruction in all the other branches.

Every one needs training in government because every one is subject to its authority. In this country, not only is every one subject to the authority of government, but every one helps to make authority. Furthermore, every one may expect at some time or other in his life to be an agent of authority: that is, to hold public office. He therefore needs training in obedience to law, the making of law, and the administration of law. This training the school should provide.

Factors concerned in government. There are three well-recognized factors in school government. First are the

pupils. The teacher is the second factor, while the third is the legally constituted agents of authority, the school board. The interest of pupils and teachers in school government is direct, because it determines the relations and the conditions under which they must live during the school day. Society has a direct interest because it wants efficient citizens. In a school where the school board and the teacher make the laws and execute them, while the pupils have no part but passive obedience, we have an example of autocracy. It is not justified because it happens to be kindly and benevolent. Fundamentally, whether autocracy is exercised by the school officers, by the teacher, or by the pupils, it is contrary to the basic principles of American government.

Teacher autocracy in government is unjustifiable. It does not train in lawmaking nor in law administration. Instead of building up obedience and respect for law, it may lead to insubordination and contempt. There is a contradiction in avowing citizenship as the aim of a school in which military discipline is the rule. It is as if one should declare that living under autocratic rule is the best preparation for self-government. It disregards the principle that the school should reproduce the best in society. It is contrary to both educational and social objectives.

One example of what it means in practice may be given:

In a city high school, the upper classmen commenced to complain of too few privileges and of strict discipline. After much agitation, a petition was drawn up and signed by the students asking that certain stringent rules be rescinded. The principal and teachers made no reply. The utter disregard of the matter aroused the students to fury. A day was decided upon to strike. At one o'clock the entire student body, with the exception of two or three pupils, marched out of the building. Under pressure from parents and members of the school board, most of the pupils were reinstated after two or three weeks. Almost no privileges remained, and mutiny but thinly veiled was everywhere apparent. It is incon-

ceivable that the situation here engendered was anything but harmful to the cause of good citizenship.

Likewise, success does not attend any and all "systems" of self-government. The mistake has often been made of putting an elaborate system in the hands of the pupils without educating them in its use. The result is usually disappointing. Often too much has been expected from systems. Often teachers have felt that their responsibility ended when a method of self-government was installed. Furthermore, a system of government will not restore order where anarchy exists. It serves its best purpose when arrived at in a natural democratic way, and as the result of careful training and development.

Coöperation in government. School government demands the coöperation of teachers and pupils. Simplicity should be the outstanding feature of any plan. Standards and models should be available, but something may be left to ingenuity and intelligence when actually facing situations. One should not expect too much when a method of self-rule is installed. Like arithmetic, grammar, and geography, self-government has to be learned. The obvious way to teach it is through pupil-teacher participation. Have the pupils exercise as much government as they are capable of, and extend and improve their rule as rapidly as it can be done. Commend progress, admonish neglect, and above all teach intelligently and persistently.

The degree of self-control exercised will necessarily be conditioned by the ideals and experience of the pupils. With very young pupils, and in schools where autocratic government has been the custom, beginnings must be very elementary. Instruction should progress toward a larger and larger element of student control, but there is no time when teacher supervision is unnecessary as a guide and as a safeguard.

Democratic school government, too, is not to be voted a

failure on account of occasional lapses from the ideal. One would not think of giving up the teaching of language because the school made a poor showing in the subject. In such a case the procedure would be to diagnose the difficulties and improve the teaching. The same course should be followed in the case of any form of coöperative government. Three stages in grading such training may be indicated: (1) informal beginnings; (2) the initiation of organized participation; and (3) organized self-government.

1. Informal beginnings. Initiate pupil coöperation the first day the child attends school. Commence by explaining the duties of school citizenship, such as courtesy, respect for the rights of others, orderliness, and industry. Develop the ideals of service and responsibility by asking some of the children to do little errands, pass materials, and care for flowers, books, and other school property. In playing games show the need of rules, and explain why every one should play fair — that is, according to the rules.

As need arises, other officers, such as health inspectors and housekeepers, may be appointed. If necessary to admonish any pupil for wrongdoing, enlist group support, and lead the pupils to disapprove of the misbehavior through the realization that it is an offense against them. Establish no rules until they are necessary. In doing this explain to the pupils why rules should be made, and, after discussion, suggest that they adopt regulations to govern the matter. Within a few weeks after entering school the pupils will begin to initiate rules to protect the school community, unless they are restrained from doing so by the teacher.

2. Organized coöperation. As soon as the pupils understand the spirit of coöperation, begin to organize them formally for group work. There are several advantages in organization. First, it makes participation more interesting, and focuses the attention on a specific objective. Second, it

more closely approximates life outside. Third, it makes the course of training progressive by enlarging duties and responsibilities, and increasing the necessity of closer coöperation. At the same time instruction through talks, service assignments, stories, and supplementary lessons in games and other subjects will be continued.

The capacity of little children for organized coöperation is usually underestimated. That they can really do many worth-while things which make them better citizens is shown by the following report of a teacher's visit to a socialized school.

I had the pleasure of attending a meeting of the Civic League in one of the second-grade rooms. A seven-year-old president presided with dignity, and according to approved parliamentary procedure. All that transpired was faithfully recorded in a book of "minutes" by a chubby little secretary, who sat beside the president at the teacher's desk. After the meeting I copied the minutes as they were written:

Our meeting was called to order by the president. We saluted the flag and sang one stanza of "America."

Some motions were made not to make slides on the playground and not to slam the doors when we come out of the cloakrooms. Then we appointed a chairman for to-morrow, and then we had our program. After the program we dismissed our meeting.

A glance at the minute book revealed the fact that most of the motions concerned the coöperation of the children in some school or in some room enterprise. In all of the minutes one reads of the whole-hearted endeavor of the children to raise not only the standard of scholarship, but the standard of behavior as well. "Good Citizenship" is their motto, and is one of the most important outcomes of their organization.

Throughout the meeting the teacher was a silent member of the group. The children alone carried out the program. Her comment on this point was to the effect that her suggestions were seldom needed.

The duties put upon elementary pupils must not be beyond their capacity. There must also be a sufficient division of duties, so that the burden on officers or upon willing

pupils will not become too heavy. Frequent alternation in the performance of routine matters is very necessary. A typical school organization for pupil coöperation is illustrated herewith:

In a large grammar school chapters of the Civic League are organized in each room, including the kindergarten. Every chapter has specified duties in building management. Working under each chapter president are minor executives, such as sentinels for hall duty, line captains, and housekeepers.

The sentinels must see that no mud is carried into the building. They guard the seven entrances with vigilance. They are also responsible for order in the halls. Each child serves one week. One morning the president of the fifth grade forgot to appoint the quota of officers. When the principal entered the office at eight o'clock she found a group of volunteers from this grade—children who had remembered their duty and were willing to serve until others were appointed.

The line captains relieve the teachers of any and all duty in dismissal and entrance. The housekeepers are responsible for neatness and cleanliness about the building and the grounds. Children found scattering paper are reminded of their civic duty; those that spot the floor with ink are asked to remove it.

Special plans for organized coöperation. One very common and simple plan is the school city. It may be used for the entire school, or for a single room. In the first case organization is effected by the election of a mayor and members of the city council. The first is elected at large, the others may be apportioned at the rate of one or two to each room. A city charter is sometimes drawn up and adopted by vote. The mayor appoints a number of subordinate officials—health inspectors, treasurer, secretary, playground captains, traffic police, welfare committees, librarian, and others. The council legislates and plans the activities of the school.

In many schools the form of government prevailing in the local community is duplicated by the students. The advan-

tage in this method lies in the fact that the actual working of the system may be observed. Moreover, the children become accustomed to participation, and are ready to take their part in local affairs at any time. In order to get the maximum future values, one year might be given to using a city plan, a second year to a State system, a third year to a National form — for example, a cabinet or a congress.

School councils. Many schools have used successfully a modification of the Civic League plan which has been described. Pupils are appointed or elected to the school council. Frequent meetings are held in which matters of school welfare and control are discussed. The principal and teachers confer and advise. Committees are appointed for special duties. Members of the council report to their respective rooms, and the policies are executed by the room organization, consisting of a president and assistants. The officers of student organizations — athletic clubs, literary societies, science club, Civic Leagues — are often admitted to membership in the school council.

While much that is done is the result of previous teacher planning which the pupils are skillfully led to accept, an opportunity may be given for pupil initiative to express itself. If one room, or another school, does something that merits approbation, the pupils will desire to surpass it. Competition in keeping up high standards of control may be a useful method of getting coöperation. Suggestions from pupils on the improvement of the school should be welcomed, and in larger schools a committee on student welfare is a necessary adjunct to good government.

A large amount of responsibility can often be given to older pupils. The eighth grade, and the senior class in high school, should be appealed to on many occasions. They should set up standards of conduct for the younger pupils, should instruct them in school ideals and traditions, and

should be taken into the confidence of the teachers when laying out new policies. Show the younger pupils that they, too, will some day be called upon to supply the places of honor and responsibility now filled by their seniors, and that they must prepare themselves for the duties.

3. **Organized self-government.** The ideal of self-government is approached most closely when students coöperate with the teachers in carrying on some special governmental function. Sometimes the student group responsible for special duty is connected with the central governmental organization, sometimes it is independent. There are two requisites for success — fixed responsibility, and teacher council and support. Administration is made easier if the violation of the rules involves a loss of a valued privilege or an honor. Several examples of special forms of coöperation are instanced herewith:

I. **LIBRARY GOVERNMENT.** In one school a library committee was elected by the pupils. Its function was to help the librarian deal with carelessness in the use of books, help prevent inconsiderate behavior, and aid in the preparation of library assembly programs.

One of the first acts of the committee was to draw up a list of "suggestions" on the use of the library. These included such rules as the following:

Come in and go out quietly.

Do not read aloud.

If it is necessary to say more than a few words, go outside.

Books like dictionaries and encyclopædias should be replaced on the shelves.

Books should be returned promptly.

Books should be returned in good condition.

Chairs should be left in place.

Bookshelves and tables should be kept tidy.

Ink should not be scattered over the floor or upon the tables.

The rules were typewritten and posted on bulletin boards, on the library desk, and in other conspicuous places. The coöper-

eration of the art class was invited in making posters to call attention to overdue books, careless treatment of books, and untidy library shelves and tables. The committee visited the various rooms and asked the coöperation of the pupils in maintaining the right kind of library deportment, and the care and use of books were made the subjects of a very interesting assembly program. The effect was to free the librarian from attention to discipline, and to improve library decorum immeasurably.

- II. **HEALTH CONTROL.** In another school, health work has been made a part of the student government organization. The student board of health is composed of one representative, known as the health officer, from each report room. He is nominated and elected by his class.

The representatives meet twice each month to discuss matters pertaining to the health and the sanitary conditions of their particular rooms, of the school, and of the community in general. Such details as proper ventilation and temperature, correct lighting, the cleanliness of classrooms and lavatories are discussed.

Such subjects as proper food, clothing, bathing, personal habits, first aid, and safety are considered. By this means each health officer acquires a new perspective. He, in turn, imparts the knowledge gained to his respective class the next day at the regular class meeting.

The supervision of a faculty member is essential to the success of the work. A teacher who has an earnest interest in the subject of health and the promotion of health habits should be appointed as adviser of the student health board.

- III. **THE HONOR ROOM.** The petition of a junior high school roll room for student control was granted by the principal. The students designated one of their number as chairman. Each student serves a week in that capacity. The chairman takes the roll and reports it, makes announcements, and records any cases of disorder. These are reported to the room adviser, and, upon her recommendation, pupils are deprived of the privilege of using the honor room.

The idea at once became popular with the students, and other groups requested honor-room privileges. These petitions have been uniformly granted for the eighth and ninth grades, but so far the seventh grade has been asked to demon-

strate capacity for self-control under teacher supervision, with an assurance that, after proof has been presented, their petitions will be granted.

Pupils who abuse the honor privilege are sent to detention rooms. After suitable evidence of improvement has been offered, they may, by vote of their fellows, be permitted to return to their roll room. The method has proved a great relief to teachers, has resulted in better order than before, and has built up the whole tone of the school.

In a high school, four out of the seven study-hall periods have been turned over to student control. A chairman is appointed by the principal, and two assistants are elected from the study-hall group. The chairman occupies the teacher's chair at the front of the hall. Rules governing the period were drawn up by a special student committee, and, after being submitted to the principal for approval, were adopted by the student association. The rules provide for a court before whom all offenders recommended for punishment by the study-hall chairman may appear.

All sentences imposed are subject to revision by the principal. Punishment is generally light, and may consist in deprivation of privileges. The court has also aided in the detection and punishment of students who have broken other regulations.

Varied methods. Good results have been reported from the use of many other methods. The educative value of trying out new forms of government is not to be ignored. For example, students may experiment with the city-manager plan, the commission form, parliamentary rule, or revive ancient systems, such as were employed by the Greeks and the Romans. The principal objection to the older forms lies in the fact that they do not have their counterpart in the life of to-day. By using the forward-looking schemes the school may become a real training ground in government.

Opinions differ regarding permitting pupils to sit as judges, and administer punishment upon their fellows. The first has few objections to it, and is one of the best ways of

getting group disapproval of objectionable behavior. The extent to which pupils may be allowed to go in punishing the offenders depends upon their experience in self-rule, the standards and ideals of the community, and the character of the student leadership. As a rule the pupils may fix the penalty, subject to revision by the teacher. Punishment is either by the teacher or under teacher supervision. Some teachers secure good results through announcing to the pupils that, in case certain offenders are detected, they may take the law into their own hands. The device should be used cautiously. Examples of typical practices follow:

1. A new principal found the walls of the basement rooms and the lavatories badly defaced and covered with pictures and writing. He called a meeting of the boys, explained the situation, and showed how the condition reflected upon all. In closing, he announced that the walls would be cleaned and painted, and suggested that they take such steps as would prevent a repetition of the offenses, and that they would be supported in any reasonable punishment inflicted upon future offenders. Several weeks later one boy was detected in the act of writing on the walls of the washroom, and was treated to a "hosing" by his indignant mates. This ended the trouble.
2. In a junior high school a disorderly student is reported by the president of his class to the student body council, a court of six pupils elected at large. The council assigns the punishment. A person committing an offense which affects only his own class is tried by the members, with no teachers present. In one instance, a boy who had been repeatedly guilty of misbehavior was brought before his class for trial. The verdict was that he be expelled from school. The fact that his own class believed he should be expelled made a deep impression upon him. He asked for probation and it was granted. His conduct thereafter became markedly better.
3. A high-school boy was guilty of injuring school property. A jury of twelve students was chosen, and he was brought to trial. The matter was also deliberated upon by the discipline committee of the faculty. Both groups brought in a verdict

of guilty. Greater severity was shown by the student jury than by the faculty committee. The culprit signed the verdict, pronouncing it just. The method had a good effect both upon the boy and upon the school.

4. Most of the devices mentioned have been used in the upper grades and in high school. Even with smaller pupils it is well to get public opinion against wrongdoers. The whole classroom may sit as a jury, the accused be given a chance to tell his side of the case, and a vote be taken on his guilt and the punishment. As this takes considerable time, some teachers appoint special committees of five or six pupils to deal with minor offenses.

Leadership in government. The special abilities of pupils for leadership in public service should become apparent through participation in school government. Some are successful in executive positions, some are deliberative and judicial; others are diligent and faithful in the performance of routine; still others find their chief interests in the give-and-take of the legislature. We cannot have efficient and satisfactory public service unless we have trained leaders. At present we have no special courses of training for political leadership, and until we do we shall have to do what we can through the incidental opportunities of public school life.

The teacher should early in the year take an inventory of the opportunities for leadership in the management of the school. Where these are insufficient, it will usually be possible to create others. The next step is to give training through practice in filling the various positions. The steadying influence of responsibility has always been recognized. Some of the opportunities for leadership may be seen from the following list, made up by the teachers in a grammar school:

Line captains.

Custodians of class property — bats, balls, mitts, etc.

Room messengers — run on errands, take reports to principal.

Librarians.

Health inspectors.

Monitors who pass materials and distribute wraps.

Bulletin board committee.

Student body officers.

Welfare committee.

Committee on room beautification.

Thrift committee; have charge of savings bank.

Attendance monitors; keep record, report to principal.

Playground leaders.

Leaders in fire drill.

Housekeepers — responsible for room and desk neatness.

Committee on assemblies and opening exercises.

Visitors committee.

Honors committee.

Organized leadership. Organization for governmental purposes itself furnishes leadership opportunities. We may cite as an example a ten-room village school where each room was organized as a city. Committees drafted the laws, drew up and posted a list of qualifications for citizens and officers, and recommended a name for the city and for the streets and parks. The usual elective and appointive officers were next chosen. An associated-city conference brought the officers of each room together to consider matters of interest to the whole school.

The concreteness of the plan was a strong point. This made its appeal particularly to the younger pupils, who often fail to comprehend government because of its intangible character. The city names represented typical industries of the region — Fruit City, Garden City, Mineral City — and the names were conspicuously displayed over the doors. The names of the streets were printed upon large placards and posted at the front of the room at the side of the aisles for which the name stood. When visitors came in, the teacher called the mayor to come forward to meet them. The mayor then introduced the visitors to the citizens.

School matters were regularly taken up by the city organization, and the citizens themselves shared equally in the discussions and in the settlement of issues. The school cities trained for leadership under democratic conditions, and the effect was to make government a visible positive force in the lives of the pupils.

Standards of behavior. The diffusion of responsibility helps to build up standards of conduct, which in turn tend to bring about the substitution of self-control for an obedience that is imposed from without. Both as a recognition of achievement, and as a means of establishing a goal, pupils can be encouraged to express their ideals in a school creed. It should not be an impossible ideal, and should express the pupils rather than the teacher. The creed should be posted within the rooms and about the building, and on special occasions should be recited in the assembly. The following may be suggested as an example:

A SCHOOL CREED

The pupils of the — school are honest. They can be depended upon to tell the truth and to keep their promises. They do not cheat nor take an unfair advantage. They do their own work, express their own opinions, and always stand for what is right. They are leaders. They are willing to take responsibility and to discharge it faithfully. They keep up their courage and remain cheerful, even in the face of defeat. They are not content until they have done their best.

They control themselves. They believe that self-control is the highest mark of a good citizen. They can be trusted to respect the rules of school and the law of the country. They do not become angry easily; they are considerate of others. They are quiet and attentive in class; they coöperate with others; they do not find fault.

They are punctual. They keep all appointments promptly, they do not postpone the work of to-day until to-morrow. They obey cheerfully and readily; they do not waste time over non-essentials, nor in idleness.

They are loyal. They support the activities of the school, and are willing to take part in them. They are loyal to the school officers, to the teachers, and to their classmates. They try to influence others to be loyal. They do not criticize.

They are responsible. They look after public property; they are helpful in every way possible. They do not take advantage of any one. They do not forget their duties; they do things on their own initiative. They are interested in the welfare of the school and of the community.

They are courteous. They are polite to all. They are considerate of older people. They respect their parents, their teachers, their leaders, and all duly constituted authorities.

Why student government fails. After an experience with student coöperation in government, many teachers decide it is a failure and desire to abandon it. The usual consequence is a return to the arbitrary and undemocratic methods of military control. Usually such teachers have failed to see the matter in its broad educational aspects, and desire to return to the devices which require the least initiative, the least tact, and the least teaching skill. An analysis of the failures of self-government reveals the fact that they are usually due to the following causes:

1. The indifference of teachers. This is due to a failure to comprehend the significance of training in government.
2. Prevalence of traditional ideals of discipline. Unprogressive principals and patrons often take the position that children must be suppressed, and that the best government is the kind that prevailed in schools forty years ago.
3. Formal classroom procedure. Teachers who stress subject-matter rather than children are likely to resent anything which changes the point of emphasis. They put their faith in system and formality, and have definite ideas about keeping children "where they belong."
4. Elaborate machinery and faith in form. A case in point is that of the principal who announced to a visitor that assembly periods were usually marked by rowdiness, but that he expected to-day's would be all right because yesterday they

had adopted a system of student self-government. He put more faith in the system than was warranted.

5. Opposition of a few unsocial pupils who have been used to running things, making breaches of discipline a chance for self-display. The best way to bring this type into line is to let them feel group disapproval.

Principles of self-government. Profiting by experience, including the successes as well as the failures, certain principles of pupil participation in school control have been established. The teacher who follows these will find, except in unusual situations, that the introduction of a system of coöperation, adapted to the attainments of the pupils, will relieve her of many trials, increase the interest in the school, and create a happier and healthier school spirit.

1. Responsibility should be shared by the teacher and the pupils jointly.
2. The children should be systematically trained in capacity for self-control and in group action.
3. Motives which are socially desirable should be appealed to.
4. Skill in government is best developed through productive activities, positive visible achievement, and doing or making something.
5. The beginnings should be informal and elementary. At no time should a complex body of machinery be set up.
6. Frequent recognition of the contributions of pupils should be given in the assembly, at community meetings, and in general school publicity.
7. Opportunities should be given for an expression of special abilities and interests through leadership.

Summary. Pupil government is one of the leading problems of the school. There are two purposes to be attained: (1) to give control and direction to child energies; and (2) to train in government. The only form of government which can be recommended in a democracy is one in which teachers and pupils work together. Beginnings should be informal in character, should progress to organiza-

tion in imitation of political units — as cities, states, and nations — and proceed to organization on the basis of function. The school can also supply many activities which demand initiative and leadership. After experience and instruction the ideals of the pupils can be framed into a creed that will motivate effort and arouse school spirit. Where student government has failed, a diagnosis of conditions usually shows that the causes might have been obviated.

EXERCISES AND PROBLEMS

1. Give examples, from your own observation, of the effect of strict discipline and autocratic methods upon citizenship.
2. Make up a list of occasions and incidents, during the first year of school, which might be used in teaching self-control.
3. State some disciplinary situation with which you have been acquainted. Give the probable cause for the occurrence, state how the case was handled, and comment upon its adequacy.
4. Point out the limitations in the Roman method of organizing school government.
5. Outline as many special school fields which require government as you can; as, library, study hall, gymnasium, hallways, classrooms, etc.
6. Discuss the dangers and the advantages in letting pupils fix penalties for infractions of discipline and mete out punishment.
7. A teacher who was new to a school heard that three of the older boys were unruly and had boasted they would break up the school. Their attitude had the previous year infected the smaller and more timid children with a spirit of insubordination. The first afternoon she called the older boys into conference, commented upon the behavior of the younger boys, and asked for suggestions. The boys finally agreed to keep the younger fellows "straight." Comment upon the method.
8. What justification can you find for arbitrary and autocratic rule by teachers and principals?
9. What are the chief features of the school republic? To what do you attribute its success?
10. Just what transitions should be made in methods of government from the kindergarten to and through the high school?
11. Draw up a set of regulations for some grade or class in which you are interested. How would you set about getting them adopted?
12. Show when rules or law should be made, and indicate the part pupils should have in their making.

13. Give some examples of unnecessary restrictions. What examples of forms of conduct which should be absolutely prohibited can you give?
14. What are the objectives in school government?
15. Explain how the appointment of pupils to positions of responsibility may help in school government.
16. What examples of coöperation can be drawn from social and industrial life to demonstrate its value to pupils?

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CHAPTER IV

MAKING THE SCHOOL'S SOCIAL ORGANIZATIONS CONTRIBUTE TO CITIZENSHIP

The need of social organization. The same reasons that can be urged for student coöperation in school government apply to the management of their social affairs. The opportunities afforded for civic training are so great that the social organization has often been called the civic school. The necessity and desirability of such activities is nowadays scarcely questioned. That there is abundant justification may be seen from a consideration of the following reasons:

1. Class associations, even when organized most efficiently, do not satisfy the social needs of youth. The subjects take up only a part of the school day. They seldom reach into and monopolize week-ends and holidays.
2. If the school does not take over the direction of the social affairs, there is likely to be indulgence in harmful activities and organizations. The gang, the "snob club," the clique, and the secret society are all evidences of the failure of the school to perform its civic function. Time which should be given to study is monopolized by dances, parties, athletics, dramatics, and kindred forms of "recreation."
3. Social affairs are a part of normal life conditions. The school that neglects to provide for them is not a duplicate of the best in society.
4. They offer a splendid field for civic training. Leadership, self-reliance, coöperation, and service are qualities that may be developed.
5. They provide recreational advantages, guard against unwise use of leisure, develop special abilities, and tend to satisfy the desire for association.

Objections to social activities. Unless there is watchful and intelligent management, the disadvantages of sanction-

ing the school sharing in social activities become apparent. There are schools where student government and student management of social affairs are a jest among the pupils. Most of the officers are elected by a "white ballot." When there is a fight for any office, it is between factions. A student in a school of two thousand pupils reported:

Before the fraternities were abolished, the contests were between them and the rest of the school. Next, the literary societies tried to run things. The last election was a fight between the science club and the non-science students. The four hundred vocational students were left out in electing officers and in appointing committees, and this had a bad effect on the entire school. When there was an exciting election, big posters attacking the rival candidate and boosting the other were put out. These were paid for from the bets, which were pooled for just such a purpose. Sometimes votes were bought for five cents apiece.

In many schools there is no single comprehensive association which is the center of the social life of the school. Classes and athletic associations focus the interests of the group. There is no unity in planning. The finances of each society are handled independently, and no accounting is rendered the school and the community. Abuses of many sorts creep in. The athletic teams are closed corporations, ruled by cliques or dominated by the sporting element of the community. The classes throw away money on picnics, automobile junkets, and cheap jewelry. Merchants are urged to demonstrate their loyalty to the school by purchasing advertising space in the "annual" or in the school paper. Such solicitation becomes a mild sort of brigandage.

In reorganizing and redirecting the social activities of a school to achieve a civic purpose, a number of points should be kept in mind. First of all, a responsible organization of the entire school should be effected, and school control of

the activities should be in part attained. This may mean the supplanting of an old association by a new. If so, it will require very tactful handling. The best rule in such a case is to get the support of the leaders by personal conferences, to proceed slowly, and to be sure that the movement is supported by enlightened student and parent opinion. Other points of importance are discussed in the pages that follow:

The selection of activities. Both parents and pupils should be consulted in the selection of activities. The suggestions of parents may be gathered at a meeting of the Parent-Teacher Association, or circular letters may be addressed to them directly. The pupils should be requested to submit a list of activities in which they would like to participate. Investigations of present conditions reveal the fact that there is an insufficient number of activities to satisfy the demands of grade-school pupils, high-school freshmen of both sexes, and high-school girls. In a one-room school from six to ten organizations are sufficient. In a city grade or high school the number may range as high as one hundred.

What the activities are will, therefore, vary with the size of the school, the interests of the pupils, and the wishes of the parents. Those that are commonly approved are athletics, literaries, class and school parties, glee clubs, orchestras, welfare associations, and dramatic clubs. Among the societies that cater to special interests may be mentioned cartooning clubs, camera clubs, bird clubs, camp-craft clubs, kite clubs, radio clubs, puzzle clubs, reading clubs, stamp clubs, wild flower clubs, travel clubs, and social-hour clubs. Something of the nature of one of these associations may be noted from the following description of a Social Hour Club in a junior high school:

SOCIAL HOUR CLUB

Room 24

Thursday, 3 P.M.

- Purpose:** to get a knowledge of etiquette for society and business, and to increase social efficiency.
- Officers:** president, secretary, teacher adviser.
- Membership:** boys and girls of the ninth grade.

The pupil's activities program. A reasonable program of activities should be carried by every pupil. To insure this there should be registration for the special activities, as for the regular subjects. From two to three activities may be carried by pupils of average ability. Participation should be restricted to those doing satisfactory work, and it has been found that even those of superior ability should not extend their membership to more than four societies. Pupils continually complain that they are deprived of a chance of participation by the activity of a few of the more ambitious. This is especially true in debate, school papers, and dramatics. Excessive activity, however, is not the rule. Out of more than sixteen hundred pupils whose social programs were examined, half gave only one half-hour or less a week to special activities. Less than one per cent of the pupils gave as much as ten hours a week to such work.

A free choice of activities should in general be permitted. Membership should not be limited to those alone who have special ability. The learning idea should be kept foremost. A boy may have no artistic ability, but should not because of this be denied admittance to the sketching club. His desire to learn or his interest in sketching is a sufficient reason.

Student finance. Especial supervision should be given to the finances of student organizations. The first reason for this is in order that funds may be properly raised; the second

that they may be wisely expended. An important civic lesson may be taught that will carry over to the handling of public funds. A general budget should be prepared, no matter how small the school, and checked over and approved by the teacher. All money collected should go into the general treasury, and be paid out only on proper warrant. If there is a school bank, it can aid materially in this field. If there is none, the problem of caring for and accounting for school moneys may be sufficient reason for its establishment. Both the budget and the report of expenditures should be given the widest publicity in the school and in the community publications.

An effort should be made to keep the cost of social affairs down to the minimum. Indeed, there should be many activities in which no dues are charged and no expenses necessitated. If student body fees are charged they should be small, and children from poor families should be spared the embarrassment of "drives" and other concerted "hold-ups." From the civic point of view this is not the occasion to make an appeal to school loyalty and school spirit. Typical methods used in raising money are by student-body fees and class assessments, receipts from ticket sales to athletic contests, receipts from programs, plays, and entertainments, sale of publications and advertising, appropriations from the board of education, donations, and receipts from salvage collected by the pupils.

Recognizing achievement. Public recognition should be given for all worthy achievement in this field. Emblems, letters, honors, and privileges are satisfactory. The monetary value in any object contributed should be very slight. Expensive sweaters and blankets, pins, and rings are not advised. Honors are voted by the pupils, and may be gained in any approved school activity or for the spirit of service in any field. A complete record of each student's

achievement in school activities is kept, along with his class record.

The conferring of honors should be made an occasion of importance. An assembly may be planned by a student committee, and an inspiring speaker engaged. The school historian should read from the permanent record an account of the achievement of each candidate. Those who have been so honored may constitute the School Service League.

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Honor societies. Students who are awarded emblems meet the service and character requirements for the Honor Society. In addition, membership in the Honor Society demands a high standing in scholarship. Honor students may be given a scholarship certificate for each year of membership in the society, and, if they maintain membership in it for one half the total period of their attendance in the school, may have the scholarship seal printed or embossed upon their diplomas. Necessarily, in a school carrying out such a plan, the pupils must be graded upon such civic qualities as dependability, honesty, courtesy, coöperation, attitude towards school and community, and respect for authority.

Recognizing the social needs of adolescents, the National High School Honor Society has recently been organized. Its purpose is "to create an enthusiasm for scholarship, to stimulate a desire to render service, to promote leadership, and to develop character." The new society represents a concession to the discredited high-school fraternity movement. Being guided by professional authority, it should prove a powerful force in the elevation of secondary-school relationships and in the improvement of citizenship. A similar organization, though of a narrower scope, may also prove helpful in grammar schools and junior high schools.

Special problems: Athletics. Athletics are almost always a prominent feature in school life, and may be made to

make an important contribution to civic training. The best practice is to emphasize inter-mural contests rather than inter-school contests. Every one should be given a chance to participate, and a wide variety of games planned. When skill is matched against skill, as seventh grade against seventh grade in baseball, or one-hundred-pounders against one-hundred-pounders in basket-ball, a wider interest is assured. The idea of winning for its own sake should be minimized, and the ideal of keeping fit and playing fair substituted. In many schools an annual play festival, modeled after the ancient Greek games, is held.

The records of each performer should be carefully kept. Athletic competition with other schools "by mail" has become frequent. Eligibility rules should be drawn up and adopted by the pupils. Their enforcement should also rest with the pupils, and their observance should become a matter of school honor. Athletic relations should not be maintained with schools that customarily countenance unfair tactics and disreputable practices. The win-at-any-cost policy has usually been found destructive of citizenship and morals. The coach should be first of all a leader and a teacher. School authorities should be prompt to suppress the first sign of dishonorable conduct. Many of the abuses can be prevented by putting athletics in charge of the director of student affairs, or in charge of the department of citizenship.

Every teacher should give instruction to her pupils in courteous conduct in connection with athletics. Most of the disgraceful squabbles which attend games between rival schools are a consequence of misguided ideas of loyalty, school spirit, and good sportsmanship. The introduction of the idea that the game is a contest between friends, and that one group is filling the capacity of host to welcome visitors, may help to change the point of view of over-zealous young-

sters who want to look upon all outsiders as trespassers and enemies. Oftentimes a "reception," given by school and community to visiting teams and their friends, may do much to create a friendly feeling and break down animosities. The presence of a student vigilance committee on the grounds may prevent disorder, and discourtesy from the younger children. The saving method in all grades, however, is to build up habits of good manners and courtesy.

Welfare league. The desire to be of service is universal. Civic satisfaction, though, is possible only in the presence of organization. Welfare leagues with open membership should be found in every school. Something of the character of such associations may be obtained from the following extracts from the report of a girls' league in high school in a small Western city:

The Girls' League was organized to promote among the girls the spirit of womanhood, and a spirit of helpfulness, courtesy, loyalty, and democracy.

Five committees are provided:

1. The program committee consists of three members, and is responsible for: (a) programs for assemblies; (b) the yearly club calendar; (c) publicity; and (d) posters.
2. The social service committee consists of three members, and is responsible for: (a) the employment bureau; and (b) all philanthropic work, including Thanksgiving and Christmas charities.
3. The hospitality committee consists of five members, and is responsible for: (a) all League parties; (b) promoting a spirit of friendship among all the girls of the school; (c) helping new girls to get acquainted; and (d) caring for visitors.
4. The committee on civic activities consists of five members, and is in charge of: (a) regulations concerning school property; (b) girls' dress; and (c) girls' rest room.
5. The committee of League activities consists of three members, and is in charge of: (a) awarding numerals, letters, and emblems; and (b) ways and means of encouraging League activities.

Under splendid leadership this League has expanded to include many other schools in adjacent counties. The first annual convention was attended by girls and faculty sponsors from thirty schools. Discussion covered such subjects as "The Girl's Responsibility to her Home and her Community"; "Benefits of a League in a Small School"; "Ways and Means of Promoting Friendliness among Girls"; "The Dress Problem"; and "The Point System." Reports pointed to such concrete accomplishments as helps to girls who are sick, gifts to hospitals, additions to school equipment, management of an annual play festival, dances and parties, the publication of a booklet describing the aims and organization of the League, and many other things to promote the general school welfare.

Assemblies. The social organization, or some representative group within it, may be put in charge of the school assemblies. Their planning may need to go no further than to assign days to the classes or to special groups. So valued is the assembly privilege that the drama league, the athletic association, the glee club, and other societies often petition for it. Matters which concern the whole school should take precedence. Twenty minutes a day is not too much to give to some form of assembly exercise. In one-room schools, or in schools lacking assembly rooms, the opening period may be used for group matters. In any case the programs should be arranged by students, and announcements made by them.

Fraternities. Both grade schools and high schools have to deal with the secret society. In the first case, it takes the character of the "gang"; in the second, of the fraternity. The best course to take is to substitute something better. Interest in such organizations, especially among pupils in the lower grades, is only temporary, and they will quickly respond to the suggestion of the teacher that a new club be formed. This may be done without mention of the old

society. Opposition usually has the effect of stimulating loyalty. Keep the children so busy and so interested in the projects of the acceptable school organizations that they have no time for thought of their earlier irresponsible gangs and alliances.

The high-school fraternity may require a more resolute and persistent treatment for its elimination. It has already been outlawed by the legislatures of eighteen States. A reasonable talk with the leaders, a spirit of fairness, and an attitude of liberality in connection with student social affairs will in time have its effect, and the fraternity members may be persuaded to give up their membership. There is plenty of argument to show that the perpetuation of such an institution is inimical to the best interests of the pupils, the school, and the community. This has been very well summarized in the following extract from a recent letter from a group of principals to the city superintendent:

Fraternities and sororities served to divide the student bodies of the high school in such a way as to impede the growth and threaten the existence of that democratic spirit it is the business of the school to foster.

These associations encouraged snobbery and the assumption of an arrogant superiority, and promoted a narrow and clannish spirit. While in some instances excellent ideals of conduct and scholarship were advocated, the general tendency was towards the cultivation of social cliques at the expense of scholarship and good standards.

Loyalty to their own membership was universal, and was given precedence over loyalty to the rules of the school or the laws of the State. This rendered school discipline difficult, aimed to shield and protect the unworthy from the consequence of wrong doing, and high schools, instead of caring for individual needs, found their administrative skill taxed to the utmost to direct and govern aristocratic and exclusive groups. These groups in turn courted, and to a considerable degree obtained, the support of influential parents and friends outside of school.

School dances. Whether the school should take the responsibility for dances is a mooted question. It probably cannot be answered generally. The action of the school will depend upon conditions in the community, the feeling of the parents, and the facilities at hand. One of the first things to do is to take a referendum of the parents. The Parent-Teacher Association properly should do this. Greater meaning to this inquiry into the desirability of the school giving dancing privileges will be given if it is preceded by a thorough survey into the conditions prevailing at the public and private dances in the community.

Should the policy of permitting school dances be adopted, a few rules may well be followed. The program should be planned early in the year, and the affairs limited to two or three a semester. A *matinée* dance may be held weekly in the gymnasium, under the direction of teachers and a committee of parents. Some schools prefer to hold all social affairs in the afternoon. Plays and games should as a rule also be provided. On certain occasions entering and leaving may be formal, mothers acting as hostesses. Parents may wish to invite the students to their homes for some of the dances scheduled for the school year.

Coöperation with the home in directing the utilization of leisure and the satisfaction of the social tendencies is a great advance over a policy of school independence and isolation. The character of the programs, the hours for closing, and the chaperonage should be determined by both the home and the school. Instruction in social etiquette should always be combined with the giving of these functions. This instruction may be taken over as the duty of the school. On the whole, however, there should be no disposition to take away from parents their natural and customary duties. Indeed, the teacher may concern herself with restoring to the home many duties which it has overlooked or neglected.

The management of the social activities of students is a more or less onerous business, and parents should be led to assume a part of the burden. Such coöperation will serve also the wholly admirable purpose of acquainting the public with the value of the teacher's service, and should help to draw home and school together by a common bond of sympathy. *

The school paper. The school paper is another factor of importance in a civic training program. In the first place, it should fulfill the function of any newspaper; that is, keep the pupils and the patrons informed about what is happening. Coöperation is more easily obtained when every one feels he is "in on everything." The editorial department should also be a strong one. It can be made to exert a great influence for good upon the student body and the atmosphere of the school. Equal weight should be given to outside items of civic interest. If the board of health is starting a campaign, if there is an election coming, if the streets are being paved, if there is a bond campaign on, items concerning them are run on the front page of the paper. The students are thus made acquainted with what is going on, and are not content to be unintelligent and unthinking citizens.

It is unnecessary to go to much expense to get out a paper. If the school has a printing press and type it is a decided advantage, but the needs may be met in a simpler manner. In a one-room school one of the boys owns a small printing outfit, and prints the school paper regularly each month. In another, the work is done on the teacher's typewriter. A school of four rooms, located in a village which has no community paper, publishes a six- to twelve-page weekly that is read eagerly by children and patrons. The only expense involved is for mimeograph supplies. The costs are met by a small subscription rate and advertising furnished by the local business men.

Although under the supervision of one of the teachers, all the items are written by the pupils. Contributions are handed to the editorial committee, and in some issues pupils from the first grade to the eighth are represented. The last issue contains a picture of the school orchestra, a list of the names of the eighth-grade graduates, an account of games played by the baseball team with the names of the players, the school motto, a description of the school exhibit, a report of the activities of the Camp Fire Girls, the community program of the week, the Flag Day exercises, an announcement concerning the activities and purpose of the Boy Scouts, club programs, personal news items, jokes, and several very good advertisements.

Many other worth-while features may be introduced. Under "school statistics" may be published figures on attendance and punctuality, school marks, cost of supplies, and many other similar matters. A page may be given to the proceedings of the Parent-Teacher Association, and another to news of the alumni. The "honor roll" should contain the names of the pupils making the best grades, and the names of those who have distinguished themselves in other lines of school work. Both the pupils and their parents are pleased to see in print a note of the good work that has been done. In all, the school paper may be made one of the strongest forces for good citizenship in the social program.

The teacher who supervises the paper should insist upon keeping up high standards. The name should be dignified. A name such as "The Yapper" or "The Hornet" should not be allowed. All articles should be written in good English. The tendency to use the popular, provincial language should be discouraged, as should all tendencies toward sensationalism. The humorous column should be clean, not overdone, and must contain nothing which offends or which

casts a wrong reflection upon pupils or teachers. Every pupil should contribute something worthy of publication, and by all means, the paper must be kept from falling into the hands of the small group which likes to dominate every activity. When well managed a school paper furnishes practical training in coöperation and citizenship, and makes the pupil feel that he is part of a school which is part of a larger community. Because the paper is taken home and read, it serves also as a means of bringing the home and the school closer together.

Principles of social organization. To one who has had experience in directing the social activities of pupils the principles of successful management are evident. Most of them have already been developed, but for purposes of emphasis are stated herewith:

1. The civic objective in all social activities should be paramount. Any activity which is not contributing to better citizenship should be redirected, or dropped, and another more useful substituted for it.
2. Social affairs should be made a part of the regular program, and periods set aside for them as for the classroom subjects.
3. The offerings should be selected in a large degree by the pupils themselves. When in doubt as to the advisability of introducing any activity, the deciding vote may be cast by the parents.
4. Teachers, parents, and pupils should coöperate closely with each other in the management and control of student affairs.
5. All pupils should be expected to participate in some social affairs, but the total load should not be excessive. As a rule no more than one office should be held by any one pupil.
6. A wide field of opportunity should be provided. When interest in any field begins to lag, the pupils should be allowed to take up a new activity without objection from the teachers.
7. Instruction in social etiquette should be combined with the participation in social affairs.

8. Participation should in all cases be recorded, and special recognition given for special contributions.

Summary. There is great need for the school to make supervised social opportunities available to the pupils. Changed conditions in society make this need particularly imperative. If the pupils are permitted to direct social affairs alone, many abuses result. In changing from the old non-supervision plan to the new, controlled by the school, progress should be made slowly and tactfully. The social program of each student should be registered, and no one should be permitted to take too much. The finances of school organizations should be strictly supervised, and expenditures should be kept down to the smallest figure. Accurate accounting and complete publicity should be given to all financial transactions. Emblems, letters, and honors should be conferred upon those who deserve them, and considerable ceremony should mark the occasion. In carrying out a complete social program many special problems will arise. These are related mainly to athletics, dances, welfare leagues, fraternities, assemblies, and school publications. It is very important in all such work to enlist the support and coöperation of the home, especially through the work of the Parent-Teacher Association. As will be pointed out more in detail in a later chapter (XIV), the establishment of such coöperation may become a valuable by-product of the supervision of school activities.

EXERCISES AND PROBLEMS

1. A superintendent of schools, in discussing social activities, said: "We feel that, with our limited number of teachers, we cannot safely assume the responsibility of social training, and rather than do it poorly we tell the parents to assume it themselves. We give all our time to academic training." What is your judgment as to the position taken?
2. Make a study of the social activities of some school you know, and

indicate the changes which should be made in order to make it function more effectively for citizenship.

3. Draw up a chart to illustrate the social organization of a school, and relate the organization with the community to as great an extent as possible.
4. Discuss the relative desirability of having membership in organizations open, elective, on the basis of ability, or selected by the teacher or coach.
5. What objections can you see in presenting expensive blankets or sweaters to members of the football team?
6. Prepare a blank form that can be used in keeping the permanent record of a pupil's performance in extra-class activities.
7. Show the necessity of insuring that athletic teams or glee clubs be accompanied by teachers, when visiting other schools.
8. Two schools severed athletic relations because of a dispute over the eligibility of some of the players. The controversy extended to the citizens, and there was much hard feeling. Suppose that you were elected principal or coach in one of the schools two years after the trouble, and desired to reestablish friendly relationships. How would you go about it, and how would you provide against further trouble?
9. In reporting upon the civic achievements made in one school the principal stated that a track team had been sent to the National meet and had broken a world's record. Do you consider this a worthy civic achievement? Is there any other element in the situation which is merely implied which makes it worth while? Discuss.
10. Plan a program for a class party.
11. Outline several worth-while services which might be taken over by a Girls' Welfare League.
12. Examine several high school annuals or papers, and formulate a conclusion respecting their civic value. What steps would you take to improve them?
13. Outline briefly reasons both for and against the school assuming the direction of dances.

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PART II
USING CIVIC MATERIALS AND METHODS

CHAPTER V

REALIZING CIVIC VALUES FROM THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

The problem of the curriculum. In the preceding chapters we have stated the objectives of civic education, and have pointed out the necessary types of organization if the school is to be put on a civic basis. This Part will be devoted to a consideration of the many classroom problems of the teacher in the work of training for citizenship. In the first three chapters, entitled "Realizing Civic Values from the Social Sciences," "Laying the Moral Foundation of Citizenship," and "Realizing Civic Values from the Regular School Subjects," will be found a discussion of the selection of teaching materials that have civic value. The five chapters which follow are devoted mainly to ways and means of using such materials in developing civic knowledge, judgment, habits, and ideals. It is realized that no complete separation of the curriculum into content and method can be made, and the division here adopted only serves to reveal the fact that in the first three chapters emphasis is placed upon content, while in the five that follow method is stressed more heavily.

Three questions must be answered in connection with any consideration of the curriculum. The first is, "What shall we teach?" The second asks, "When shall we teach?" The third inquires, "How shall we teach?" Essentially, we may say that we have in our instructional materials a body of useful experience which the pupils should undergo and comprehend. This act may be called learning. The question then becomes, "When and how may learning take place most pleasantly and most economically?"

The selection of materials. It is evident that not all experiences should be chosen. Some are obsolete, some are harmful, others are beyond the comprehension of youth, and some may be more readily mastered in other than school situations. Many are relatively unimportant; others are absolutely essential. In choosing from the many experiences which exist in life the few which are to go into the school curriculum, the following three principles should be observed:

1. Select that material which is most interesting to the pupils and best suited to their present abilities.
2. Select that material which has the greatest civic value.
3. Of items which are equal in interest and civic value, select those which the school can teach most successfully.

Reorganizing the social sciences. An examination of current courses dealing with the social sciences reveals the need for their reorganization, if they are to comply with the principles which we have stated. Three steps are necessary in bringing about the desired changes: (1) the addition of new content; (2) the adoption of a new order of arrangement; and (3) a new method of presentation. What the situation is may best be understood from a brief survey of how the curriculum has developed.

Renewed emphasis upon social science followed the patriotic fervor growing out of the Civil War. History tended to become something more than mere chronology. The human element in geography began to supplant the mathematical. Economics, however, was still confined to the study of principles, none too scientifically established. Sociology was almost unknown.

Instruction in civics was in its beginnings. The first courses were given over to a study of government. The Federal Constitution was the chief source used. Textbooks usually presented it clause by clause, each being followed

by a brief explanation, and at times with historical comments. It was not unusual for pupils to memorize the document entire. From the point of view of understanding the fundamental principles of government, the content and method were effective. A respect and love for the Constitution were inculcated that was highly desirable. Much of the discussion, though, was unsuited to the abilities of children, and the system was subject to the limitation of covering only a part of the whole field of citizenship.

The historical trend. In the last decade of the nineteenth century the subject of civics was greatly expanded. The study of State government was added, and lists of local, State, and National officials, together with their duties, were memorized. At the same time some attention was given to the study of foreign governments. In 1893, the Committee of Ten brought in its Report. It recommended four years of history in the high school, and four years in the grades. Civics and geography were to be taught with history. Oral lessons, combined with collateral readings, were suggested. New textbooks, embodying these ideas, appeared.

Four years later, in 1897, the Committee of Twelve advised the introduction of such studies as would connect the home and the school, and the community and the school. This marked the beginning of investigations for civic values in history. The trend commenced to be away from the deductive methods of the past. The function of government was stressed, instead of the form. Social surveys now were frequently made. Local and community affairs were conceived to be of supreme importance. In 1907, the committee on the articulation of high schools and colleges agreed to accept one year of social science for college entrance. The course was to be based upon current events and problems, and practical knowledge of affairs in the community.

Recent developments. The changes that were taking place in educational thinking were clearly reflected in the work of the committee of the National Education Association which reported on the Social Sciences, in 1916. The claims of economics and sociology for recognition were admitted. The new program was adapted to both the 8-4 and 6-3-3 plans of school organization. The new subject of vocations was made a part of civics, and the community idea was strongly emphasized. Two cycles were suggested: grades 7-9, with geography, European history, and American history and civics; and grades 10-12, with European history, American history, and a course in current social, economic, and political problems. No plan was prepared for the lower grades.

The last report is the product of the effort of a joint committee of the American Political Science Association, the National Municipal League, and the American Historical Association. Their final report was rendered in 1921. Training for citizenship is the avowed purpose of the committee. For grades 1-6 the committee recommends the study of: (a) the making of the community; and (b) the making of the United States. For grades 7-9, in order, the subjects are: (a) the world before 1607; (b) the world since 1607; and (c) community and national activities. The last combines recent economic and social history with commercial geography and civics. The last cycle comprises grades 10-12. In the tenth year European history from 1650 to the present is studied. In the eleventh year United States history, and in the twelfth social, economic, and political principles and problems.

A still further study of the teaching and content of the social studies has been under way for some years, financed by the Commonwealth Fund. The work is under the direction of a large and well-selected national committee, which is

making a very careful study of the problem. Their report may be expected some time in 1925 or 1926.

The scientific selection of materials. While the investigations of special committees have been under way, individuals have been trying to find a basis for choosing social science materials. One of the first studies of this kind was made in 1915. It was an attempt to discover what the content of history should be by finding out the frequency of reference to persons and events in current magazines and newspapers. Of a similar type are studies of the topics appearing in social science texts. A third type of investigation derived the civic problems from an analysis of political issues, as found in State and National party platforms from their origin up to 1918. A fourth type concerned itself with "What a Layman Should Know about the Law," and another with "What a High School Student Should Know about Voting."

Reference will be made here to only one other investigation. In 1920, 655 initiative and referendum measures were analyzed. They comprised all the propositions the people have voted upon directly since the first initiative and referendum laws were adopted, in Oregon, in 1902. These were genuine problems which the people had had to face. Their decisions affected not only themselves, but the whole population as well. Many of these issues have appeared, time after time, in the same State. Many are still present-day issues, and some will be the problems of future generations. A list of these problems is given in the table below, in the order of the frequency with which they have been voted upon. For purposes of comparison, the topics derived from the analysis of current magazines and newspapers and party platforms are also given.

Sources of materials. Two conclusions seem apparent from the review of what has been done in the social science

PROBLEMS OF THE AMERICAN PEOPLE

CIVIC TOPICS, ARRANGED IN THE ORDER OF THE FREQUENCY OF THE OCCURRENCE IN INITIATIVE AND REFERENDUM ELECTIONS, AND CONTRASTED WITH TOPICS FOUND IN CURRENT PUBLICATIONS AND IN PARTY PLATFORMS

RANK	TOPICS	INITIATIVE AND REFERENDUM (per cent of totals)	PARTY PLATFORMS (per cent of totals)	CURRENT PUBLICA- TIONS (per cent of totals)
1	Taxation.....	13	.0	24.9
2	Liquor.....	7	.0	8.2
3	Education.....	6.3	4.8	.0
4	Legislative Methods.	6.2	4.0	11.0
5	Elections.....	6.0	.0	.0
6	County Government	5.7	.0	.0
7	Public Roads.....	5.5	.0	.0
8	Banking and Finance	5.2	9.6	3.8
9	Labor.....	4.6	10.2	1.9
10	Suffrage.....	4.4	.0	13.6
11	State and County Officers.....	4.3	25.0	.0
12	Public Utilities.....	4.1	10.4	9.0
13	The Judiciary.....	3.2	2.7	.0
14	City Government...	3.1	1.0	.0
15	Dependents and De- linquents.....	3.0	.0	.0
16	Industry.....	2.6	.0	.0
17	Public Morals.....	2.5	.0	.0
18	Constitutions.....	2.3	3.0	.0
19	Natural Resources...	2.1	7.3	0.9
20	Public Health.....	2.0	6.6	5.0
21	Fish and Game.....	1.5	.0	.0
22	Printing and Pub- lishing.....	1.4	.0	.0
23	Public Works.....	1.2	5.3	8.1
24	Irrigation.....	1.1	.0	.0
25	Public Safety.....	1.0	.0	.0
26	Miscellaneous.....	0.7	4.7	13.1

field. First, there is a tendency to unify all the social sciences into one subject. The lines that were formerly drawn between history, civics, geography, economics, and sociology are being broken down. Second, educators are going to many sources to get materials for civic instruction. The first is largely a matter of organization, and has grown out of the effort to preserve the essential unity of life in the recitation. It is realized that outside of the school one does not live a little history, and then a little sociology, followed by a few minutes in geography and government. The second is an attempt to get experiences that are functioning in the present. In doing this, students of civic education have turned to many new sources for instructional materials. Before going further, let us see what some of these additional sources are.

The community. It was natural that the student of the problem should turn first to the immediate environment. The community is the social and civic unit. Genuine first-hand experience will seldom go beyond the community. It is a type of that which makes the Nation. Much of this community material may be evaluated in a scientific manner. Examples of such are the programs of commercial associations, civic leagues, women's clubs, proceedings of the city council, and the annual reports of both official and lay bodies.

Civic activity may be seen on every hand. The post office, the city hall, the fire station, the library, and the schools are centers of it. Courts, councils, public celebrations, fairs and festivals, and elections may be shared in and imitated by the pupils. Direct observation of the various branches of government actually at work leads to a better understanding than does the wisest exposition of their principles. Participation in their activities is an even better way of teaching. While such types of teaching are time consum-

ing, at least one type study from each activity ought to be possible in the school life of every child.

The community book. All effort to be really educational ought to result in something real — in something that can be seen and used. The community book is a good example of such a result arising from a community survey. All of the work in its preparation ought to be done by the pupils. There is plenty of value in the preparation alone. Afterwards, the book may be used as a text. Succeeding classes may add to it and improve it. A good example of such a book is the one prepared recently at Decatur, Illinois. The topics treated in the Decatur book were: the history of the city, education, institutions, industries, transportation facilities, public buildings, churches and civic societies, department stores, government, and the future outlook for the city.

The textbook. Social surveys and community books merely lay the civic foundation. To avoid narrowness and provincialism we must lead the interests of the pupils beyond the confines of the community. At this point the textbook comes in as a convenient aid. Necessarily, it presents material in a condensed and a generalized form. However, back of its generalizations are their concrete manifestations in the world of life. Just as the teacher should know what material may be obtained from the community, so she should know what textbooks contain.

The mastery of the textbook is not conceived to be an aim in itself. It serves its chief purpose when appreciated as a tool. Where a textbook is the foundation of a course, the teacher should have at hand abundant supplementary and illustrative material. This may consist of other texts, of books which deal at length with special subjects which the text only touches, of official reports, magazines and newspapers, maps, and objects. The teacher is not obliged to

follow the text literally. She may take up such topics as she chooses. For the pupils, the text is designed to supply incentive, guidance, summaries, and reference. For the teacher, its purpose is to suggest organization, give teaching aids, and serve as a convenient source of information.

Current materials. There is much useful material available from current sources. Magazines, newspapers, maps, bulletins, reports, folders, posters, lectures, and new books offer a varied collection. The publications which are finally used should meet the following requirements: (a) be written in clear and correct English; (b) be truthful and just; (c) give evidence of a strong moral and civic purpose; (d) present a constructive point of view; (e) avoid the purely sensational; and (f) appreciate the benefits of positive, orderly, democratic institutions. There is no difficulty in finding magazines and newspapers which meet with these requirements. There are also official bulletins of many kinds and on many subjects. Here is a fine chance to work up a civic library.

Most schools follow a careful plan in caring for such material. The magazines and newspapers are arranged in order, indexed, and bound. A simple filing system may be devised to care for clippings. They may be pasted on strong paper and filed in manila envelopes. This work may be done by the student "clipping bureau." Only those clippings should be saved which have permanent value, and which cannot be obtained from the newspaper or magazine files. Pupils should be taught to follow events in a similar field through a long period. For example, one may give the year to following events in immigration, another elections, another education, etc.

Illustrative materials. Closely allied to current and community materials are those used in illustration. The emphasis upon visualization in modern education almost

justifies the saying, "Learning is seeing." Visual materials are very useful in lending interest to teaching. The use of pictures, charts, diagrams, cartoons, graphs, and posters in commercial advertising, and in campaigns directed to convincing the public, are convincing testimony to their value. Illustrations in publications, public buildings, pictures, objects, and public works may all be utilized in civic education.

Of a similar nature are those activities which may be reproduced or dramatized by the pupils. The meetings of legislatures, constitutional conventions, councils, civic leagues, jury trials, and the transactions of the routine business of public offices are all excellent examples. Concreteness and vividness are obtained by such imitation. Of a like nature are the values in using moving pictures and stereopticon views. The pupils should be encouraged to collect and use these illustrative materials.

Organization of materials. The principal question concerning the organization of the social sciences hinges about whether all should be combined into one course, or whether they should be treated in separate compartments under such names as geography, history, and civics. The tendency is in the direction of the first, that is, towards the unification of the related subjects, with history common to all. As has been shown, the materials are descriptive and concrete. The inductive method, too, has almost entirely supplanted the deductive. In the study of government, more and more attention is being given to function and less to form.

To illustrate the first method we may consider the following suggested outline for the seventh to twelfth grades:

Seventh: A study of the people of to-day, the place where they live, and the affairs in which they are engaged.

Eighth: A study of the people of the past following a similar outline.

- Ninth: A study of social, economic, and political problems of the present. Local, state, and national point of view.
- Tenth: A study of the chief problems of the past covering the same territory.
- Eleventh: A study of social, economic, and political problems of the present. World-wide point of view.
- Twelfth: A study of the problems of the past. World-wide point of view.

The second method is clearly illustrated in the plan put forth by the committee reports referred to in preceding pages. It is well to keep in mind that these divisions seem more artificial than they really are. In the work of teaching it is practically always the custom to connect geography up with history and civics, and *vice versa*. There is agreement that the social sciences should give an intelligent conception of life to-day, and help in the solution of the most pressing life problems. The starting-point is consequently, usually, the present. Such sources are then drawn upon as give the most assistance in solving the problem under consideration, be they history, civics, geography, or economics.

Organization within the subject. What has been said concerning the organization of the social sciences as a group applies equally to any subject belonging to the group. There are some who are inclined to study a problem only in its local aspects. To illustrate, some would first study all the problems within the community boundaries before venturing beyond. This is the community point of view. Others would follow any lead that promised to be useful, no matter how far away it took them. For example, a problem of public health might be studied in its local, State, national, and international aspects. It seems clear that any method which stops at the political limits, regardless of whether the problem has been solved or not, is inadequate.

Education is neither a pouring in nor a drawing out process. Its results are proportional to the amount of coöperation enlisted. It reaches its maximum when all the powers of the pupils are most ably employed. The teacher who is engaged in the preparation and use of a social science curriculum should be willing to subordinate logic to the needs of life. She should remain unmoved when she is charged with "sacrificing history," or with failing to "preserve the integrity of grammar," and should refuse to accept obligations to "prepare pupils for Latin." A common-sense view insists upon the adaptation of materials to children as they are, and as they are developing. That which is also most essential to social life has the first claim.

These principles help to reveal certain centers of emphasis in each of the four departments of the school. These will now be considered, in order:

The primary grades. The social science curriculum for the primary grades should be built around the problems and needs of the individual. Situations connected with personal health and safety are good illustrations. The first step in training children to a sense of the importance of improving the welfare of others is to lead them to value the things which protect themselves. The formation of good health-habits, the care of their own property, safety on the way to school and while at play, self-reliance in study, and industry and energy are to be cultivated. The civic virtues which should be stressed are punctuality, helpfulness, courtesy, and obedience. These provide the transition to the social point of view.

The intermediate grades. In the intermediate grades the personal emphasis ought to be extended to include others, and yet retain the personal relation. Public health, public safety, and public activities as carried on by people whom the children know are what is meant. An inquiry into the

duties and obligations of the postman, the policeman, and the librarian leads to an understanding of group service and organization. The civic virtues of fair play, service, truthfulness, and justice belong to this period. History and biography should be offered which deal with heroic figures. The characters should be those who fight and build, rather than those who think and legislate. The first six grades are the very foundation of our democracy. The instruction should be rounded out and made as complete as possible, as though the children were going no farther in school.

The grammar grades. The problems of association and organization belong properly to the upper grades of the elementary school or to the junior high school. Such subjects as how people work together, and how they form organizations should be considered. Supplementary information may be found in history, biology, economics, and sociology, and especially from "folkways." The study of organized government may be carried on through the use of constitutions, laws, franchises, and legal forms. There should be much practice in the performance of civic duties, such as voting, law-making and parliamentary methods. The special civic virtues which should be developed are respect for law, respect for property, loyalty, courage, and honesty. The pupils should think in terms of the group, and take pride in "our class," "our city," "our school," "our State," and "our Country." Pupils at this period desire to assume responsibility for their actions, and a large degree of freedom should be permitted.

The high school. Problems of organized society may be studied in more detail in the high school. They should be dealt with in large units. Any of the topics derived from the scientific studies listed in this chapter are suitable. Preference should be given to those problems that are of present interest. The vocational aspects of public service

should also be studied. Most of our minor officials will be selected from among the high-school graduates. Opportunities for social service should be open. Students of high school age like to coöperate with others in social betterment. Their enthusiasm for reform is proverbial.

The course of study. When the social science materials and methods are selected, graded, and evaluated we have the course of study. It is the official guide to instruction. It is not, however, to be followed slavishly. From the well-made course of study the teacher should secure the following information:

1. An outline of the amount of material to be covered in a given period, such as a month or a term. A wide margin for extensive or intensive work with superior pupils should be found in the supplementary and optional exercises.
2. There should be a few type lessons and exercises which will help the teacher to plan her own work.
3. A number of suggestions should be made on the construction and use of objective tests.
4. The course should contain a list of things which the pupils can do — games to play, excursions to take, and forms of illustrative materials to prepare.
5. There should be a calendar of civic occasions, such as holidays, with suggestive programs made up.
6. A number of cross references to other subjects where there is matter of civic value will be found useful.
7. The names of auxiliary agencies and other community resources should be given. The course should further specify the location, the name of the person in charge, and devices and methods by which such agencies may be rendered profitable to the pupils.

Principles of social science instruction. The social science field is relatively a new one. Our experience with it as an organized branch of study has been brief. Also, only a few scientific investigations of its content and method have as yet been made. Such principles, therefore, as one may de-

rive regarding it will not be so reliable as those that may be had from the older subjects. Nevertheless, on the basis of experience, reports of authorities, and such studies as are available, the following seem to be acceptable:

1. The field of social science is being continually broadened to include more of the sociological and economic aspects of life.
2. While the study of government is not being subordinated, there is a tendency to give more time to function and less to form than in previous years.
3. It has been realized that the study of the community alone is insufficient and makes for provincialism. The modern tendency is to make the scope of the subject world wide.
4. Corresponding to the unity of society itself, there is evidence that the subject is being unified. With each succeeding year it becomes more difficult to separate history, civics, geography, sociology, and economics content in texts and courses.
5. The approach to the subject is inductive.
6. In methods of teaching more stress is being placed upon practice and participation, and less upon formal reading and memorizing.
7. The point of departure and the center of interest are problems of to-day.

Summary. The principal purpose in social science instruction is to teach citizenship. In making the curriculum, those items should be chosen which have the greatest civic value, provided they can be taught. Much progress has been made in selecting materials since the Civil War. The greatest progress has been due to the work of special committees. Several investigations have also been made for the purpose of determining what items are of most civic worth. There are many sources available for the teacher to draw upon. Among these are the community, textbooks, and current publications. When selected these materials have to be organized. Two methods are possible: (1) in separate subjects; or (2) in a single unified subject.

EXERCISES AND PROBLEMS

1. The statement was made that anything put into the curriculum should be of interest to the pupils. Outline a method by which you might discover what their civic interests are.
2. Make a comparison of the civic values of two magazines issued the same month. In order to do this you will need to define civic values and to adopt a basis for your judgment.
3. Using the principles which were given to determine the suitability of magazines for school use, make up a list of five or six which you would recommend for junior high schools.
4. Enumerate the objections which may be made to the textbook method, and show how these may be overcome by the skillful teacher.
5. Account for the necessity of emphasizing the present in attaining the civic objectives.
6. Make up a list of equipment which you consider indispensable in the teaching of citizenship.
7. How do you explain the fact that following a war there is likely to be renewed interest in education for citizenship?
8. Make a list of chapter headings which might be used in a community book, prepared by high-school pupils. What differences would you make for intermediate pupils?
9. How do you explain the growth of emphasis upon the community in the early part of the present century? What are the limitations to courses in community problems?
10. Compare the report of the National Education Association Committee of 1916 with the Report of 1921.
11. Examine a few textbooks in civics, representing different dates of publication, and point out the most pronounced changes as one approaches the present.
12. Make up a calendar of the chief civic occasions of the usual school year.

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CHAPTER VI

LAYING THE MORAL FOUNDATION OF CITIZENSHIP

New Chapter
The moral basis of citizenship. There is another department of social science instruction which should be given a prominent place in civic training. This is moral education. Sound character is the basis of efficient and congenial membership in society. Without it, model charters, laws, and constitutions are of no avail. Individual and social existence on the plane of civilization is impossible without justice, truth, honesty, loyalty, and industry. The moral obligations that bind the individual also bind the group. There is not one kind of morality for private life and another for public. There is not one kind for citizens and another for states and empires.

We need to realize that children come into the world minus the moral experience and moral wisdom of previous generations. Morality is not born with them. They must be taught to speak the truth, to believe in justice, to be honest, to do their share of the world's work, and to be loyal to their associates. They must be trained as carefully in moral human conduct as in any other branch of knowledge and practice.

Aims in moral training. The specific aims in moral education are in no way different from the aims in civic education. The two customarily differ in the types of subject-matter used. The two terms carry different associations. In moral education we commonly think of duties unrelated to organization. In civic education the idea of organized associations is never far removed. Social duties are the theme of moral education. "If one finds something on the school

ground what must he do with it?" "If one injures another's property what is his duty about it?" "What is one's duty in respect to the care and protection of parks and public buildings?"

The first aim of moral training is to teach children what is the right. This is identical with the knowledge aim of citizenship. A heavy charge rests against a society where people do wrong because they are ignorant of what is right. The second aim is moral judgment. This implies that, in case of uncertainty of the right or wrong of a contemplated act, the person will weigh the circumstances carefully and choose finally what is most conducive to the social welfare. The third aim is habit. This demands practice in the social mode, such as in etiquette, manners, and conventions. The last is ideals. This includes such feelings and aspirations as will have the effect of causing one to do the right thing invariably, after he has found out what it is.

Subject-matter. Two types of materials for moral instruction may be distinguished, as in civic education. First is that type whose principal purpose is moral training. Such material is implied when the direct method is used. Under this method, a definite place on the daily program is given, and outlines, syllabi, and texts are prepared, as would be done for courses in arithmetic and language. Books in ethics supply the textual materials, and everyday happenings are drawn upon to give problems and illustrations. Creeds and codes also are featured in systems of direct training.

The second type of material is chiefly relied upon when the indirect method is used. Instead of having a place on the daily program, instruction is incidental and occasional. Disciplinary situations may afford opportunity for moral lessons. "Memory gems" and precepts are utilized. Other subjects are levied upon. History, biography, liter-

ature, music, and art are the principal correlated subjects employed. In addition, all extra-class activities provide means for moral lessons.

There is some discussion as to whether direct or indirect methods should be used. In the face of the fundamental nature of such instruction this hardly seems to be a problem. Wisdom seems to dictate that morals be given a regular place on the program and taught directly. We have found that this is the best way to get results in other subjects. No one considers morality less important than skill in writing, spelling, reading, and mathematics. On the other hand, it seems that whenever favorable occasions arise, in connection with the usual work of the school, to drive moral lessons home they ought not be neglected. It is believed, therefore, that there is need for both direct and indirect moral training, and the following pages will be devoted to a discussion of ways and means by which such instruction may be given.

Contributions of courses in ethics. Courses in ethics are not to be regarded as substitutes for right doing, but as only one of the reinforcements of right doing. They help to prepare one for the right act, so that he will be ready when the situation arises. At least two fifteen-minute periods may well be given each week, and the exercises should be carried on with sufficient variety to prevent boredom. One good method is to let the pupils prepare the programs. In each, there should be vividness and appeal until the children are shown that the right act is what each truly wants.

There are several ways to proceed. The beginning may be from the moral virtues, such as generosity, courage, patriotism, and loyalty. The meaning of these terms may be explained, and then illustrated through dramatization, pictures, and stories. A second method is to put a series of moral problems before the pupils. After discussion and investigation, the group may reach a decision concerning the

appropriate action when put in a similar situation. Many teachers base all the direct moral instruction upon incidents of the schoolroom and the playground. Disobedience, theft, falsehood, cruelty, and injustice, as examples occur, furnish the subject of the lessons. Generally speaking, the first course is preferable. One should not wait until there has been wrongdoing. The very purpose of moral training is to prevent it.

Creeds and codes. Creeds and codes summarize the feeling and judgment concerning attitudes and actions. Every school, class, and organization should have its creeds and mottoes. Copies should be framed and placed in conspicuous places in the rooms, and they should be recited frequently at morning and assembly exercises. Copies of the Hutchins code for elementary pupils, and of the Brevard code for high-school pupils, may be obtained from the Character Education Institution, of Washington, D.C. The former consists of ten "laws" or principles, with brief explanations of each. The laws refer to health, self-control, self-reliance, reliability, clean play, duty, workmanship, team work, kindness, and loyalty. The nature of the code may be seen from the following extract:

THE LAW OF GOOD WORKMANSHIP

The good American tries to do the right thing in the right way

The welfare of our country depends upon those who have learned to do in the right way the things that ought to be done. Therefore:

1. I will get the best possible education, and learn all I can from those who have learned to do the right thing in the right way.
2. I will take an interest in my work, and will not be satisfied with slipshod or merely passable work. A wheel or a rail carelessly made may cause the death of hundreds.
3. I will try to do the right thing in the right way even when no one else sees or praises me. But when I have done my best, I will not envy those who have done better, or have received larger reward. Envy spoils the work and the worker.

The Brevard code consists of fourteen points. These are respect and honor for parents, diligent study, kindness, temperance, purity, honesty and justice, industry, truthfulness, courage, cheerfulness, self-reliance, patriotism, responsibility, and self-control. Each point is italicized, and is reinforced by a few general and special sentences. The twelfth point is selected as a fair example:

XII. *Love and honor your country, holding no work for her too hard, no service for her too great.* Do your part in your community, obeying law, keeping order and peace, helping as well as you can in work for good. Study the laws and government of your country, that with intelligence and judgment you may serve her well. In true loyalty and devotion uphold in your own life the high standard of national character — the standard of good faith, justice, courage, and regard for the general good.

Oaths and obligations are valuable in clubs and societies. In drawing up the constitutions of athletic associations, the purpose of the organization may be stated in such terms as to constitute the creed or obligation. Civic leagues and classes may adopt the American's Creed:

I believe in the United States of America as a government of the people, by the people, and for the people; whose just powers are derived from the consent of the governed; a democracy in a republic; a sovereign nation of many sovereign states; a perfect union, one and inseparable; established upon those principles of freedom, equality, justice, and humanity for which American patriots sacrificed their lives and fortunes.

I therefore believe it is my duty to my country to love it; to support its constitution; to obey its laws; to respect its flag; and to defend it against all enemies.

A number of high-school honor societies have adopted the ancient Ephebic oath. It is equally appropriate for many other groups.

We will never bring disgrace to this our city by any act of dis-

honesty or cowardice, nor ever desert our suffering comrades in the ranks. We will fight for the ideals and the sacred things of our city both alone and with many. We will revere and obey the city's laws and do our best to incite a like respect in those above us who are prone to annul or set them at naught. We will strive unceasingly to quicken the public sense of civic duty. Thus in all these ways, we will transmit this city not only not less, but greater and more beautiful than it was transmitted to us.

Using creeds and codes. Accompanying the codes which are sent out by the Character Education Institution is a set of directions for their use. Probably no better suggestions can be given than to quote these directions entire:

1. The classroom teacher organizes the children into some society for participation in classroom government and discipline. Important problems are presented at meetings, and social influences utilized.
2. The children adopt the children's morality code as a standard expression of ideals, based on the wisdom of experience.
3. As an opening exercise, each school morning, the teacher discusses with the children for a few minutes some phase of the code, and with their help elucidates its meaning, and advises as to ways and means of fulfilling it in daily life.
4. Copies of the code are furnished the children and their parents, and one copy is framed and hung on the walls of the classroom.
5. The children are graded upon their report cards upon their loyalty to the code instead of merely upon their deportment in school, so as to give a broad application to the use of the code.
6. The teacher makes tactful efforts to be of influence in matters of personal conduct and of loyalty to ideals, and especially in fundamental purposes, and, as a friend of each child, encourages and guides in its efforts to overcome weaknesses and to develop strength and character in all virtues.
7. A character record card is kept for each child, unknown to the child and the parents, and passed forward to the next teacher as a help in subsequent character education work. Teachers combine to influence children in other rooms who

are backward in character development. Information is obtained from parents as to conduct at home, and is recorded on the record card as a basis of an understanding of the child's moral problems.

8. The teachers develop keen discernment in child character by intimate acquaintance, and by observations of conduct, conversations, and emotions. There are also noted the "urges" with the child's personality — the urge to gain knowledge, to enlarge the scope of activities, to learn to do new things, to accumulate possessions, to make friends, to win honors, to experience leadership, to appreciate beauty and create artistic results, to become worthy of self-esteem, and to be of service to others. Weak urges are vitalized by encouragement to suit each child.

The Iowa Plan. A few years ago there was instituted a National competition for a system of character education. The winning plan was prepared by educators in the State of Iowa. The booklet of fifty pages, published in 1922, should be in the hands of every teacher. As one of the most usable methods of character instruction it is described herewith:

1. School life must be so enriched that pupils may have experiences in right living. These experiences are to be provided in health, initiative, life in the group, reverence, use of leisure time, civic relations, economic relations, vocations, and family relations.
2. Student participation in school government is regarded as essential. Pupils are to be trusted with powers consistent with their maturity and ability.
3. The curriculum busies itself with problems, projects, and actual situations, rather than with virtues. A catalogue of projects is provided. The socialized recitation is recommended.
4. The making of character books in which shall be transcribed noble deeds, inspiring quotations, pictures, and other matter of moral worth.
5. All the school studies and activities are to be concentrated on character training.

A list of projects and problems to enrich a character-

building curriculum was worked out by this Iowa Committee. Below is found, for the twelve grades in order, those that center about civic relations:

1. Rules for a new game; make badges to wear February 12 and 22.
2. Child patriots of France. Design decorations for the table February 22.
3. Make model of a plantation home.
4. Make booklet of history of first settlers in the community. Origin of the flag. How firemen save time.
5. Form two Indian councils. Unite into a federation for protection.
6. *A Message to Garcia*. Washington's journey to the Ohio. Construct a class flag. When Lincoln's humor saved the day.
7. Establish a post-office. Draw up an oath of allegiance. Draw plans and make relief map of Valley Forge.
8. Work out the story of the builders of your community or your city. Construct a government on a desert island, build a constitution, make laws, create courts, and establish social customs and rules of conduct.
9. Select a delegate or officer by the election methods of 1789.
10. Dramatize *The Man Without a Country*. Make a bibliography and card catalogue of the civics library. Dramatize a session of Lincoln's cabinet.
11. The vow of citizenship. Catalogue the organizations of your neighborhood. *Americanization*. Distinguish between a democracy and a republic.
12. Draft a constitution for the family of nations. See *American Ideals Yet to be Attained*, by Cabot.

School surroundings. The force of environment as an agency of moral training has always been appreciated. Ugly, dilapidated buildings, defaced walls, scratched desks, and dirty floors and yards are a constant suggestion to vandalism. The story is told of a teacher who found that the children were injuring school property, and who changed the situation, not by discipline, but by making the place attractive. Order invites order as certainly as scratched walls invite

more scratches. The school building and premises ought to suggest good manners and reflect good taste by its neatness, beauty, and comfort.

The school buildings, with their furnishings and grounds, ought always to be the best in the community. The presence of trees, flowers, and lawns are lessons in the possibilities of gardening which may carry over to the home. Clean yards are a constant criticism upon the litter and disorder of vacant lots and the home premises. Every activity so conducive to their own interests is also a preparation for larger civic responsibility. The defense of the school property grows into defense of all public property, public health, and public morals. Money spent for good buildings, and excellent decoration and equipment is good insurance against immorality.

Discipline
School discipline. The indirect moral influence of school discipline is often thought of. Rightly it is considered of more importance in the development of character than as a means of getting the day's tasks done. Before an objectionable act has been committed, prevention is the aim of discipline, and it is thus allied to habit-formation and instruction in conduct. After an offense has been committed, the aims become prevention of its repetition, correction, and reform. Punishment of some sort, either physical, mental, or the loss of honor or privilege are common means employed.

Record
In order to deal most wisely with any case, the teacher will first analyze the conditions that led up to the wrong behavior. She will then be in a position to remove the contributing cause, and thus prevent repetition. A complete record should be kept for her guidance. On the record should be written the date, the offender's name, the nature of the offense, and such other information as will establish the facts in the case. When the case has been finally disposed of, she should record the disposition, and thereafter,

any effects or changes in the individual which are significant.

Reform and prevention are most certain when the teacher is backed up by the approval of the group. "Let the teacher punish a pupil and he is a martyr; let the group punish him and he is in disgrace," is a wise saying. Penalties visited by the fellows of the culprit are usually just. They are effective because the disapproval itself is a stern form of punishment. They are generally accepted by the offender as "a fair deal," because they do not arise out of the arbitrary will of one person. The social sympathy of the class is denied, and the boy who creates disorder simply to show off is without an applauding audience. The method gives an insight into the workings of government, and acts as a restraint upon the group. At the same time, the teacher's influence, both with the culprit and the class, is strengthened.

An example of social discipline. As an illustration of civic control by a class, the following story is told:

Two boys from the fifth grade who were the "rough-necks" and bullies of the lower school were to enter the sixth grade at mid-year. Just before the boys came into the sixth-grade room the teacher prepared the class by reminding them of all that the group had stood for. She stated that she knew it was the desire of every one in the sixth grade to continue the good work, but that it was going to be more difficult the following semester due to the entrance of two new boys who might not sense the importance of becoming real coöperating members of the group. The duty of every pupil in the sixth grade would be to make the new boys realize what the standards of the class were.

On the day that the new boys entered the class, a class meeting, at which the student president presided, was held. Various members were called upon to tell what the class had done to improve the room — of the Saturday trips to the hills, how all tried to reduce disturbances to the minimum, how they tried to keep their room the cleanest in the building, and how they could be left alone on their honor. After the recital, the president asked the newcomers if they

were willing to subscribe to the class program, and if they would do their best to live up to it. Both boys sincerely agreed that they would.

In commenting upon this class experience, the teacher remarked that the whole proceeding was tremendously impressive, in many respects resembling a religious ceremony. To every pupil in that room it was about the biggest thing he had experienced. The controlling effect of this meeting on the class and on the new boys was long noticed.

The use of stories. Most of the thoroughly well-organized methods of teaching morals indirectly have utilized the story. The reader or listener tends to identify himself with the characters, and the events make a lasting impression. The teacher should set the standard for story telling. Abundant reading material should be at hand from which the pupils may select. The method advised is for the teacher to relate a well-chosen incident, bearing upon the subject being stressed, such as courage, generosity, or kindness. The points are then discussed, and the pupils tell other stories bearing upon the same subject. There should be no direct attempt to draw the moral. If the story has been well told, and the point well developed, there will be no need for moralizing. With smaller children, disputed questions of right and wrong should not be brought up.

A list of suitable stories for moral training is published by the Character Education Institution of Washington, D.C., and suitable references are also found in books on moral education. A few of the best general references are given at the end of this chapter. The list below has been recommended as containing many books which should be in the school library. The numbers after the titles refer to grades.

Bailey and Lewis	<i>For the Children's Hour</i>	(1-6)
Baldwin	<i>Book of Golden Deeds</i>	(4-8)
Baldwin	<i>Fifty Famous Stories Retold</i>	(1-8)
Brooks	<i>Historic Girls</i>	(5-7)
Broomell	<i>The Children's Story Garden</i>	(1-8)

Burgess	<i>The Goops</i>	(1-8)
Burt	<i>Poems Every Child Should Know</i>	(1-8)
Cabot	<i>Ethics for Children</i>	(1-8)
Cabot	<i>A Course in Citizenship</i>	(1-8)
Coe	<i>A First Book of Stories</i>	(1-4)
Coussens	<i>The Ruby Story Book</i>	(5-6)
Forbush	<i>The Honesty Book</i>	(5-12)
Holbrook	<i>Book of Nature Myths</i>	(1-3)
Johnston	<i>The Three Weavers</i>	(8-12)
Keeler and Wilde	<i>Ethical Reading from the Bible</i>	(1-8)
Laselle	<i>Short Stories of the New Americans</i>	(7-9)
Lindsay	<i>Mother Stories</i>	(1-6)
Meigs	<i>The Kingdom of the Winding Road</i>	(7-9)
Poulsion	<i>In the Child's World</i>	(1-6)
Pyle	<i>Wonder Tales Retold</i>	(1-6)
Richards	<i>Pig Brother and Other Fables</i>	(1-6)
Riis	<i>Hero Tales of the Far North</i>	(7-9)
Roberts	<i>Kings in Exile</i>	(7-9)
Sneath and others	<i>The Golden Rule Series, Readers</i>	(3-8)
Tappan	<i>American Hero Stories</i>	(5-8)
Wade	<i>The Wonder Workers</i>	(7-9)
Wiggin and Smith	<i>Tales of Laughter</i>	(1-6)

Teaching manners. Training in manners and conventions is an inseparable part of moral education. The simple duties of respect and politeness should be made habitual in the early grades. With students of the junior and senior high-school ages there will be abundant interest in learning what is good form. Some of the methods that have been used in making the teaching of manners realistic and concrete are enumerated here:

1. The commercial department of a high school dramatized a telephone conversation. Telephones were installed at each side of the stage and girls were seated before them. A third acted as central, while a fourth explained the purpose of the demonstration. A conversation was then carried on over the telephone, showing the proper courtesy, how to use the voice, and what information should be always obtained.
2. The domestic science department of another school installed a counter on the stage, and explained how to choose dress goods of various kinds in order to get quality and service. A

feature strongly emphasized was that of consideration and courtesy toward the saleswomen.

3. A class kept "good manners books," in which they wrote down any blunders they saw made, very pleasing acts of courtesy, and notes and illustrations on what to do on formal occasions.
4. In a junior high school, the bulletin board was used to placard daily the most conspicuous departures from good form made in class, on the playground, in assembly, and in the lunchroom.
5. A questionnaire on manners was prepared by the Girls' League. These were handed to the pupils, who were asked to rate themselves. The "scores" were recorded, and the same scheme followed a few months later to discover what improvement had taken place.
6. A special week was given to "Good Manners" in a large grade school. Compositions were written, outsiders were invited in to give talks, stories and quotations were collected, and an assembly program was prepared. Posters which were put up about the building served to call attention to some of the leading shortcomings of the school.
7. The director of social activities introduced the custom of giving brief talks after school on proper behavior at dances and parties, just preceding the date set for one of the regular school functions. Attendance was voluntary, but nearly the entire school attended.
8. Correct manners at table were dramatized. While several children were seated at the table, another explained clearly and distinctly the right way to eat and act.

Evaluating results. While character rating cannot be held to be scientifically accurate, there are many positive advantages in it. The significance of moral conduct is thus brought forcibly to the notice of pupils and parents, and a beginning place is set up for improvement. One school has the teachers rate the pupils monthly on courtesy, industry, honesty, service, fair play, neatness, coöperation, persistence, and obedience. Numbers from one to five are used, one standing for excellent, two for very good, three for average, four for poor, and five failing. These ratings are

A CONDUCT AND CHARACTER RATING CARD

Name of pupil.....School.....

Date.....Age.....Grade.....Section.....

MORAL QUALITIES	FIRST SEMESTER			SECOND SEMESTER		
	E	Vg	P	E	Vg	P
Obedience.....						
Does exactly what he is told to do.....		*				
Keeps all rules.....	*					
Obeys cheerfully and promptly..		*				
Courtesy						
Does not interrupt others.....	*					
Does not pass before others...			*			
Waits his turn.....			*			
Fair Play						
Does not cheat in games.....	*					
Is a cheerful loser, a modest winner.....		*				
Does not take advantage of weaker.....	*					
Honesty						
Does his own work.....	*					
Respects the property of others	*					
Keeps his promises.....	*					
Tells the truth.....	*					
Coöperation						
Works and plays happily with others.....		*				
Works for the good of the school		*				
Helps keep room clean.....			*			
Helps keep order in assembly..			*			
Self-control						
Can be trusted when teacher is absent.....			*			
Keeps his temper.....	*					
Accepts decisions of the majority.....	*					
Service						
Is proud of his school.....	*					
Speaks well of his associates...		*				
Volunteers to help others.....	*					
Stands by the school leaders...		*				
Industry						
Works hard.....		*				
Is persistent in the face of difficulty.....			*			
Makes good use of leisure time			*			
Health						
Stands and sits in good position	*					
Keeps himself clean.....	*					
Obeys the rules of health.....	*					
Punctuality						
Does not waste time.....			*			
Hands in written work on time.		*				
Comes to school on time.....		*				

reported to the parents, exactly as are grades in school subjects. In another school the same qualities are used, but the rating is done by the pupils.

A more complete analysis of the moral virtues is often found on report cards. In a rather detailed system ten qualities are listed, and the pupil rated at the end of each semester. The strong point about such a method is that the specific form of conduct necessary to secure higher grades is clearly indicated. The form on page 109 is used by way of illustration.

Principles of moral training. There is less agreement concerning procedure in moral training than in practically any other field of learning. The condition is somewhat due to the fact that it has been taught incidentally and occasionally. Others have felt that only partial success could attend the teaching of morals without the support of religious instruction, which they were often prohibited from giving. However, there has grown up, out of experience and thought rather than research, a body of principles which will stand scrutiny. These include the following:

1. Children are not inherently moral nor immoral. Whatever moral standards we would have them obey must be learned.
2. Citizenship without morality is insufficient and incomplete.
3. Morality should be taught, both directly and indirectly. Good examples, activity, problems, and stories are more effective than lectures and sermons.
4. The main objective of instruction is to lead to right conduct. This demands that pupils know the right, and appreciate it to such an extent that they will habitually respond with the right action.
5. The reporting of character rating to parents usually has the effect of improving the pupils' conduct.

EXERCISES AND PROBLEMS

1. Show how "memory gems" may be used in either a direct or indirect system of moral training.
2. Why is it if pupils are told they are going to be given a course in morals they are likely to "shy" at it?
3. Give such reasons as you can why moral training should be given directly.
4. Take some regular school subject, such as art, history, geography, or music, and show how it can be made to contribute to moral training.
5. What moral values can you find in biography?
6. To what extent would you feel justified in teaching the children that the way to success consists in doing right, while doing wrong leads to failure? Discuss.
7. Just what means would you take to overcome the too common idea that the good boy is a "sissy"?
8. How would the fact that a child did wrong through ignorance influence you in dealing with the offender?
9. State the particulars of some breach of school discipline which you have observed. Analyze the case, indicate if some natural tendency were connected with it, tell what the teacher did, and comment upon the adequacy of her action.
10. Briefly describe some teacher who has exercised a marked influence for good upon you, and try to analyze the nature of his power.
11. Show the significance of the following: "Character must be caught, not taught."
12. What characteristics must be possessed by stories in order to claim the attention of school children?
13. Find out the names of some of the stories and books that are popular among boys and girls of the junior high-school age. What can you say of the moral value of their reading choices? How would you get the pupils interested in good books if they are reading unwholesome and negative literature?
14. In what respect can it be said that the school building and grounds exercise a moral influence?
15. Show some of the advantages for moral training that the playground has over the classroom.

SELECTED REFERENCES

Cabot, Ella Lyman. *Ethics for Children*. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1910.

A course of study for children six to fourteen years of age. Contains many stories, illustrating moral virtues.

Davis, Jesse B. *Vocational and Moral Guidance*. Ginn & Co., New York, 1914.

This book reports what has been done by many teachers, and is especially good in its outlines of procedure.

Engleman, J. O. *Moral Education in School and Home*. Benj. H. Sanborn & Co., Chicago, 1918.

Follows the indirect method. May be correlated with the usual school subjects and activities. Modern in its outlook.

Forbes, Mildred P. *Good Citizenship Through Story Telling*. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1923.

Suggestions on story telling are practical and to the point. Also has a number of stories of civic value.

Forbush, William B. *The Honesty Book*. The National Honesty Bureau, J. J. Little & Ives Company, New York, 1923.

Short stories and talks for grade and high-school pupils.

Moore, Harry B. *The Youth and the Nation*. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1917.

A rather inspiring book emphasizing the typical American qualities of character.

Sharp, Frank C. *Education for Character*. The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis, 1917.

This is one of the best books in the field, for the teacher's own use.

Sneath, E. Hershey, and Hodges, George. *Moral Training in the School and Home*. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1914.

A manual for pupils of the elementary grades. The bibliographies are particularly good.

Van Denburg, Joseph K. *The Junior High School Idea*. Henry Holt & Co., New York, 1922.

Describes what is being done in the Speyer School.

Character Education Methods. The Iowa Plan. The National Capital Press, Washington D.C., 1922.

The winner in the prize competition.

Everyday Manners for Boys and Girls. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1922.

A most valuable little book, prepared by a committee of teachers for the pupils of a Philadelphia high school. Can be used from the fourth grade up. Should be in every school library and may be put in the hands of the pupils with profit.

CHAPTER VII

REALIZING CIVIC VALUES FROM THE REGULAR SCHOOL SUBJECTS

Civic values in other subjects. Civic education has been defined as the process by which individuals understand the affairs of organized society, and learn to help in civic enterprises. If this definition is accepted, no one can claim that all the civic values are found in the social sciences. The difference lies in the fact that the aim of the social sciences is almost wholly civic. In other subjects, the civic aim is subordinated to others. The problem of the teacher of whatever subject, however, is to realize the indirect as well as the direct values.

It is well to remember that we are not justified in teaching anything for its own sake. Art, history, economics, and Latin have no claims of their own upon the time of the pupil. They are valued only as they forward the educational purpose. We need, too, to think of these subjects as considerably broader in scope and more vital in meaning than the books and articles which have been written about them. There are certain active, functional elements belonging to what we call subjects. These make them of service as tools in the work of the world, and in modifying and helping humanity. It is these useful features of subjects which should be seized upon and brought to the minds and hands of children that they may use them in shaping their own lives. The civic values are those which particularly relate to group welfare. In the pages which follow we shall endeavor to point out some of the civic values in a sampling of the traditional school subjects, and to show how teachers have realized these values.

Civic values in the fundamental subjects. Some would contend that the tool subjects, such as language and arithmetic, possess little of civic value. It should not be forgotten that the command of society is, "Be not simply good; be good for something." The skills acquired in these fields have very great vocational and social uses, apart from their need in civic relationships and group activities. After the introductory lessons have been given, almost all the practice may be given in situations where content of civic importance is constantly employed. Moreover, the hard work and the self-control which are demanded of any one to master the tool subjects help to prevent delinquency, and are strong forces for the good.

As a means of adding incentive to study and drill in the tool subjects, three devices may be employed. First, the pupils should be asked to suggest things for study. For example, one teacher asked a sixth-grade group to bring in a list of as many things as they could find which every one should know how to do by the time he reached the end of the sixth grade. The one hundred and forty items reported covered a wide range, and the greater number were of decided civic importance. The group was next checked up to discover the degree of skill which each possessed in doing the one hundred and forty necessary tasks. The zeal with which each one threw himself into the work of bringing his skill up to standard was evidence to the teacher of the educational worth of the method.

A second useful device is the employment of standards. When pupils know what is expected of them, they work with more intelligence and with greater interest. Teachers find that greater progress is made in penmanship when the pupils can compare their own work with standards, and when a definite goal is set for each. Standard tests and scales in spelling, reading, language, and arithmetic serve the same purpose.

Values in arithmetic. The constant suggestion of practical applications of the fundamental subjects is another important device. Thus one can stress the value of legible penmanship in recording important facts. The teacher may show the need of both spoken and written language ability as a means of meeting people favorably, in gaining a livelihood, in preventing accidents, in understanding laws, in keeping in touch with modern problems, and in cultivating a spirit of friendliness. In arithmetic, in the upper grades especially, problems may be drawn from the work of public officials, and from other practical situations. Recent texts and courses of study contain many illustrations, of which the following may be taken as typical:

1. Problems dealing with the use and saving of time.
2. The selection of proper foods.
3. Working with money.
4. Making Christmas presents.
5. Statistics of accidents. ✓
6. The saving of money — a school bank. ✓
7. The ownership of a home contrasted with the payment of rent.
8. Investments — War Savings Stamps, business, etc.
9. A bond issue — building a schoolhouse.
10. Being well and strong — cost of sickness, etc.
11. Taxes and the valuation of property. ✓
12. The arithmetic of business — department store, a bank, a grocery.

A concrete example may be given to show how one of the topics may be worked out in practice. In the fourth grade of one school, the pupils established a "play cafeteria." Pictures of many different foods were displayed on a counter at the front of the room. During the arithmetic period a pupil was chosen as cashier. He took up his position behind the counter and sold food to the other members of the class, who came up one at a time to give their orders. All the

pupils checked up the bills, which were paid in school currency. Every pupil had practice in selecting foods, in making change, and in addition.

Values in language. Language teaching offers a fine opportunity to bring out civic values. Spelling lists may be made up from official notices found in every newspaper, from warning and danger signs, from posted notices in parks and public places, and from tax bills and other official papers. An occasional reading lesson may be based upon similar material. The need of a common spoken and written language was very well brought out in one school by dramatization. One group took the parts of newly arrived immigrants to whom our language was unknown, and portrayed the difficulties in travel, in getting and holding a position, and, in general, the dependent condition of one who lacks ability in the use of English.

Written composition affords a most convenient and practical way of teaching civic lessons. Both business and friendly letters may be employed to teach courtesy, neatness, punctuality, good taste, and responsibility. The practice followed by some schools of carrying on friendly correspondence with schools in other States and nations is a commendable one. Civic problems may be largely drawn upon for topics for debate and discussion. Ethical and moral questions are also suitable topics for composition. In addition, the teacher may draw upon the whole field of current public activity for suitable theme subjects. The improvement of streets, the laying out of parks, the construction of roads and bridges, bond issues, elections, community surveys, and all the broad group interests are concrete examples.

Civic values in art. Some one has said that ignorance of art is more dangerous to the nation than illiteracy. There is a large measure of truth in the assertion. Certainly America

more than most other countries ought to utilize the civic values in art. We have sufficient wealth to gratify our desires for art. We are large importers of art objects from other countries. Despite marked recent advances, we still have so much that is tawdry and ugly that we need to develop higher artistic standards among our people. The civic purpose in all this is uppermost. The object of training in art is to arouse a desire which can only be satisfied by excellence. "Artistic" should not be a term reserved for the unusual, but should apply to the things of everyday life. When people can be impressed that they should live with beauty all the time, instead of only occasionally (perhaps in a museum), they will have learned a valuable civic lesson and life will be made more worth while.

Art is one of the most practical of subjects. We look about us. Everything man has made is an attempt at artistic expression. In the great works of art, we see, further, that the civic motive has superseded all others. Statues, monuments, towers, memorials, arches, fountains, aqueducts, civic centers, and paintings are all examples of the expression of the civic-art motive. There is furnished us here an abundant opportunity for the expression of our national genius, and one that it would be easy to cultivate.

What teachers have done in civic-art. Only a brief mention can be made of the many achievements of teachers in civic-art. One teacher was confronted with the problem of a badly furnished classroom. There were no pictures or curtains, and the wall-paper was ugly and unpleasant. The children discussed the matter in class. They decided on the color for the walls. They procured samples of curtain materials, and made their selections. They repainted the woodwork. They visited the stores to choose pictures and frames. The transformation was not a work of a few days, but extended over several months.

In another city, bonds were voted to buy a new park, build a civic auditorium, and improve the approaches to the city. Use was made of the community undertaking to interest the pupils in public affairs. One of the first projects at the opening of the school year was the preparation of "Travel Books," in which the pupils recorded examples of community improvement which they had noted elsewhere. Other examples were collected from many sources. An outline of the several weeks' work in art on the proposed improvement revealed many important civic connections:

I. Activities of pupils.

1. Drawing.
2. Paper cutting.
3. Collecting and mounting pictures.

II. Topics connected with the proposed park.

1. Playground apparatus.
2. Duck pond.
3. Athletic field.
4. Museum.
5. Swimming pool.

III. Topics connected with the proposed auditorium.

1. Stage facilities.
2. Proper lighting.
3. Proper exits — safety.
4. Proper heating and ventilation.
5. Location.

IV. Topics connected with the proposed improvement of approaches.

1. Map of entrances to city.
2. Subways and overhead crossings of railways.
3. Planting spaces for trees.
4. Elimination of rubbish.
5. Elimination of unsightly bill-boards.

As a final illustration, consider the work of an art department in connection with a plan for the beautification of a city. The campaign was launched by the civic committee of the chamber of commerce, the women's council, the real-

tors, the city park board, the farm bureau, and the teachers' association. One of the motives set up was preparation for a flower show. The contribution of the pupils consisted in the following:

1. The making of ornamental folders, advertising the project.
2. The making of garden plans, involving problems of walks, borders, tree placement, plants, flowers, and lawns.
3. The study and illustration of various kinds of flowers, and directions on the time and manner of planting.
4. The gathering and mounting for public display of a collection of photographs illustrating good planting.
5. The preparation of posters.
 - a. Urging better planting.
 - b. Advertising lectures and literature on soil composition, proper drainage, protection from insect pests, and proper cultivation and care of plants.
 - c. Spreading propaganda against placing rubbish along the highway, leaving litter after a picnic, picking flowers and fruits belonging to others, picking wild flowers along the highway, and pulling up wild plants and destroying wild shrubs.

Civic values in music. Music might properly be classed with the social sciences, inasmuch as the teaching aims should be chiefly social and civic. The benefits derived from it though will depend largely upon how it is taught. Theoretical and technical courses do not carry over into the daily life outside and beyond the school. They do not create honest enthusiasm and appreciation except (at the most) in those who have special talent. Music plays an important rôle in life, however, and general instruction should be made as untechnical as possible in order to reach the many.

There is probably no better means than group singing for bringing about social unification. This is one of the functions it serves in the home, the church, the lodge, at public assemblies of all kinds, and in the school. It is easier to get pupil coöperation after a few minutes of spirited group

singing. It is one of the most important aids to good order and discipline. As one writer has said, "Incipient quarrels and fights cannot flourish with a proper musical accompaniment." The fact that music is being employed as a curative agency in insane asylums and in penal institutions is of itself significant. If it is good for the reformation of mind and character, it should be useful in their formation.

Methods of realizing values. The civic values in music have seemed to come from other than the instructional periods. Perhaps these may function best as preparation for such occasions as opening exercises, assemblies, holidays, and community affairs. In many elementary schools, patriotic songs are sung every day. In many high schools, one assembly a week is devoted to our great national music. Folk music and sacred music also are valuable in civic training. In one high school the daily musical assemblies are arranged as follows:

Monday.	Patriotic songs and music.
Tuesday.	Popular songs.
Wednesday.	Folk songs.
Thursday.	Songs of other lands.
Friday.	Religious songs.

The phonograph and the radio may also be regarded as important aids in civic training. While by no means confined to music in their use, their musical function should not be overlooked. When children are allowed to choose records, it is noticeable that they often turn to patriotic selections. There should be much repetition of the best. The addition of equipment of this kind is itself a worthy civic enterprise.

One of the chief benefits from music is undoubtedly derived from general, active participation in band, orchestra, and chorus. These should be organized in every school of size sufficient to organize and maintain them. A large opportunity for harmonious coöperation is assured for such under-

takings. Often the school board is willing to purchase the necessary instruments. In some cases, the instruments are sold to the children at cost and on easy terms, either the parents or the school board guaranteeing payment. As a means of arousing outside interest there is nothing superior. Sometimes private instruction is provided for which the school is able to give credit. Advantage should be taken of invitations for the school band, orchestra, or glee club to appear at community functions — a form of service to the community and of recognition and approval to the pupils. Membership in all such associations should be free to those qualified, and never by the election of the members.

Civic values in literature. The teaching of citizenship through literature is each year becoming easier of accomplishment. Silent reading has largely superseded oral, and more reading is possible. Never before was such a number of good books and other printed materials available. School authorities, too, are giving both the teacher and the pupils a wider latitude in selecting reading matter. There is less tendency to prescribe what shall be read. Of course, reading alone is not always sufficient. Pupils should think and talk of what they read. If the pupils are sufficiently interested in the underlying problems with which literature deals, they will want to express themselves on them. It is probable that books influence children for good or bad as much as any other factor in their environment, and they should be able to balance their own reactions to them with the judgment of others.

Literature reveals the universal ideals. Literature can be made to supply a motive for problem assignment, and to encourage individual effort. Civic problems can be put before the pupils through literature, and they can be urged to think about them. Through literature too, the pupils can be given an opportunity to weigh values, and the narrowing

use of one source of authority can be avoided. General questions, which the teacher should have in mind in developing the civic values, include such as the following:

1. Personal ideals revealed, with examples of the same.
2. The importance of community welfare.
3. Civic knowledge that may be useful in public service.
4. Ideals of social improvement revealed — can they be applied?
5. Useful habits, such as the wise use of leisure, industry, and health.
6. The recognition of civic obligations, and response by appropriate action.

Methods and materials. The reading or literary club may be utilized to motivate outside reading. In one school each grade from the second to the ninth has a reading club, in which membership is purely voluntary. At each weekly meeting reports are given on the reading done, or extracts from books and articles are read to the group. All criticisms are constructive, and must be accompanied by reasons for the suggestions. An individual record of each child's reading is kept on large cards, which are posted in the classroom. The reading lists are made up by the pupils from suggestions from teachers, librarians, and parents. The fifth-grade class of this school collected a large number of library lists, from which the pupils have made selections for the library and for their reading club.

Almost everything that has literary value may be said to have some potential civic value. However, there are a few principles which should guide the teacher in recommending books. First, nothing should be recommended that is not true to the facts of life. This rules out the bizarre and the purely sensational. Second, books that belong on the civic-literature list should be dominated by a strong moral purpose. Third, books should be selected which have a cheerful and hopeful outlook on life. The morbid and the

depressing should be tabooed. When there is so much good literature available there is no need for putting anything questionable into the hands of the children.

An early survey of the literary resources of the community by the teacher is suggested. The school itself may have a fair supply of useful books, and city or county libraries may be available. Often there are other collections of books, either in private homes or in the possession of organizations, that may be made accessible to the school. Sometime a "circulating" library may be made up by the pupils from books of their own, or from their homes. These may be sent around from room to room, and a book exchange maintained. In addition, the teacher should often make references to good books. A short list of suitable books, with library numbers, placed on the blackboard, has been found very useful. Investigations reveal the fact that teachers do not direct the reading interests of pupils as they might. Three hundred and eighty-five junior high-school pupils were asked what influenced them most in choosing a book. Their answers showed that the title was of most influence, and the teacher least. Other influences, in order, were the suggestions of schoolmates, the presence of many good pictures, the reputation of the author for writing exciting books, interest in the table of contents, the presence of plenty of conversation, and the attractiveness of the print, cover, and paper.

Civic values in Latin. A wholly reasonable plea for the teaching of Latin might be made from the civic point of view. By way of illustration, consider the Latin account of the requirements for eligibility and preparation for office under the Roman Government. A splendid class project can be built around the *Cursus Honorum*, the graded steps by which a candidate passed from lower offices to higher. Each might hope to rise to the highest office of all — the

Consulship. The man who came to hold this office had thus had years of experience and training in political administration. He had served in the far confines of the Empire, and he had labored at home under the eyes of his fellow citizens.

After ten years of military service, the Roman candidate began the Senatorial Cursus Honorum. He commenced in this field with the Quæstorship, an office having charge of public funds. He was next elevated to the Curile Ædileship, where he superintended public lands, buildings, and entertainments. This was followed by the Prætorship, a judiciary office of vast importance. His next appointment was usually to the governorship of a province. Last of all came the Consulship. An excellent lesson in comparative government may be worked out by contrasting the Roman methods of selecting and training officials with our own.

Civic values in science. The tendency in science teaching has for a long time been in the direction of the social. "Science Readers" for the upper grades explain in simple terms such phenomena as winds, tides, and gravity, and their relation to human welfare. One finds in the modern textbooks chapters that deal with the "science of home and community." Chapters also deal with such topics as "Life — Its Origin and Betterment"; "Transportation and Communication"; "Foods in the Home"; and "Air and Health." Laboratory experiments are performed with apparatus that the pupil could assemble at home if he desired. This is, indeed, a vital change from the old "cook-book" type of experiment, that had no bearing on anything the pupil had ever seen or heard of before, and whose chief aim was to be performed and written up, with copious notes.

Present-day objectives in science seem to be somewhat as follows: (1) To give children an understanding of science as a force in everyday life and environment; (2) to lead them to appreciate the contributions of science to the progress and

well-being of modern life; (3) to awaken an abiding interest in science, and (4) to give such practice in scientific method and scientific attitudes in thinking as will enable pupils to apply scientific procedure to the infinite number of environmental activities which depend upon science for an explanation, and scientific attitudes in thinking over the problems of life, human welfare, government, etc.

Putting science to work. Some indication of the civic values in science can be seen from a consideration of chemistry. The purpose of such training in the elementary and high schools is "not to make chemists, but to know chemistry." The laboratory can here be put to a use perhaps possible in no other study. Here the pupil can study the action and properties of such substances as baking powder, soaps, and glass. Here he can become acquainted with the science of photography. Instead of analyzing "unknowns," concocted by the instructor and put in bottles labelled *x*, *y*, and *z*, let him analyze soaps, foodstuffs, ashes, and the dozens of other common substances. Let him analyze water, milk, coal-tar dyes, and patent medicines, and so help to solve the community health problems. At least let him apply his knowledge to the world in which he lives.

Various clubs may be organized and set to work on problems of the home and the community. There will be a chance for the application of most of the scientific principles involved. Reports and experiments by club members will furnish a wholesome social element, and stimulate interest in science as well. Modern magazines, such as *The Scientific American*, *Popular Science*, and *The Scientific Monthly*, will help to show the pupils how vital science is to human welfare. Excursions to manufacturing plants may also be combined with club work, motion pictures, and popular lectures in developing the civic spirit through science.

In a junior high school the following "Science Assembly"

program was given recently. The talks were illustrated by experiments, charts, and graphs prepared by the speakers. Many of the topics are of distinct civic value:

1. *Protection from fire.* The Boy Scouts gave a demonstration of the use of a fire extinguisher. A talk was given describing the extinguisher, how to care for it, how to refill it, and how to use it.
2. *Air and breathing.* Experiment to show the composition of air, and how to detect impurities. Demonstration of how artificial breathing is produced.
3. *Air and health.* Talks on bacteria in air. Illustrated by charts, such as the influence of season on disease.
4. *The iceless refrigerator.* One shown and explained by boy by whom it had been made in the manual training department.
5. *Composition of foods.* Tests for starch, sugar, and proteid demonstrated.
6. *Bacteria and foods.* Discussion of the effect of bacteria and the protection of foods. Illustrated by charts.
7. *Methods of communication.* Explanations of telephone, telegraph, and wireless. Girl Scouts demonstrate methods of signaling.

Civic biology. An interesting experiment is being carried on in three schools of the State of Oregon under the direction of the Social Hygiene Society of the State. The essential object is to teach proper ideas as to sex, though the course is much broader than this. The course covers four years, and extends from the third to the sixth grade, inclusive. The topics treated each year are as follows:

THE OREGON COURSE

Third grade

Flowers — the parts and their functions.
Insects.
Seeds and seed dispersal.
Birds.
Fish.

Fourth grade

Insects.
The crayfish.
Sea forms.
Earth worms.
Animal tracks.
Yeast.

Frogs.
Seed germination.
Plants.

Spiders.
Birds.
Wild flowers.

Fifth grade

Protozoa.
The cell.
Seeds.
Heredity.
Eggs.
Insect metamorphosis.
Rabbits.
Bacteria.

Sixth grade

Life functions.
The paramœcium.
Locomotion.
Digestion.
Respiration.
Circulation.
Excretion.
A comparative chart.
Health charts.

An opinion as to the worth of this work may be had from the statement of a superintendent. He writes as follows:

The study of civic biology not only affects the child, but also the parent. It creates an interest in all living things, and seems to have a more direct influence upon the child's everyday life than any other subject. The children are more able to relate themselves to the life about them because of this experience. Our course in human physiology, built upon this foundation, is all that the most optimistic could require.

Civic values in mathematics. Teachers of mathematics have also proceeded a long way in the reorganization of the subject along social-civic lines. This is shown by their reorganization principles, which declare their purpose to exclude: (1) all those items which are not of themselves to be directly used in practical situations, or which are not reasonably necessary to the intelligent mastery or use of such practical items; (2) all involved and complicated instances of otherwise useful topics or applications which do not serve to clarify the main point under consideration; and (3) all proofs as discussions which do not help the pupil to an intelligent use of the topic.

The newer textbooks and courses of study are generally

based upon problems drawn from life situations. This means that elements of business, road building, the construction of public buildings, the construction of machinery, and other types of coöperative and public work are taught as one develops the principles of mathematics. The logical organization of the subject has given way to the practical organization. This means that facts and principles which are needed in the solution of practical problems are taught together, irrespective of whether they come from algebra, geometry, or arithmetic. While this does not necessarily imply that the transfer and mental-discipline values formerly claimed for mathematics have been found wanting, the feeling is that they have not been sufficiently demonstrated to warrant the exclusion of matter of known civic and social value in order to give them a monopoly of the field.

Civic values in home economics. The sense of the relation of the home to civic problems makes us realize that home-making is the most important feature of the world's business. Yet it is remarked that nothing is more noticeably lacking in education to-day than intelligent preparation of young men and young women for home-making. The strength of the nation must inevitably be weakened if the home, the chief source of social and civic virtue, is not kept strong and vigorous.

To reach the greatest number, home economics has a very peculiar place in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades. The examples of what teachers are doing to make home economics function in a civic way are naturally drawn from the upper grades of the elementary school and the special classes in the high school.

1. The pupils take the responsibility in their own homes for at least one meal a day.
2. The class prepares and serves a meal to their mothers in the dining-room of the practice cottage.

3. Other pupils are interested in the school cafeteria through:
(a) having clever notices written on all blackboards; (b) posters on bulletin boards; and (c) invitations to all to have a free lunch on the opening day of the campaign. Attractive posters here and there in the lunch-room suggest the best food practices.
4. The question is published in all possible places, "How may every girl in school have genuine rosy cheeks?" This is followed by the direction, "Ask the girl with rosy cheeks what she eats." This will not only bring the attention of the pupils in an effective way to foods containing iron, but it will also help to solve another school problem, namely, that of the use of paints.
5. An exhibit in a downtown store window of one food a day, with its good qualities characterized, creates interest on the part of the community.

Civic principles. An examination of the other school subjects will show the many civic values which exist in each of them. For their realization, the work of the teacher is to emphasize those things that most closely and immediately relate to human welfare. Whatever limitations there may be to this general rule are brought out in the principles of guidance below:

1. Materials and methods in correlated subjects are of civic value according as they minister to immediate group needs.
2. That teaching is more effective from the civic point of view which is carried on by exercises, and activities, and which results in changes in conduct or in tangible, objective things.
3. Interest is added to subject teaching by connecting it with everyday affairs.
4. In each class and school exercise the teacher should not be content until some contribution to social welfare has been made.

Summary. The civic values in school subjects may be classified as direct and indirect. In the first type, citizenship is the main objective. In the second type, although many

actual civic values may be found, they are clearly secondary to others, such as cultural, vocational, preparatory, and avocational. Teaching is most efficient when a maximum of both the direct and indirect values are obtained from every subject. Thus, while the fundamental subjects are useful mainly because they give one possession of tools which he may use in further learning, or, to a more limited degree, in the pursuit of certain vocations, they also may make a considerable contribution to better citizenship. This is seen from many illustrations concerning the teaching of art, music, literature, and other subjects. In teaching all of these subjects there are three possibilities for bringing in civic values: through the method of teaching, through the content, and through appropriate coöperative exercises and activities. Art, music, science, and foreign-language clubs may, in addition to giving incentives for the study of the subject, also result in civic attitudes and abilities of great importance.

EXERCISES AND PROBLEMS

1. Write the names of the leading elementary school subjects in a column, and opposite them put down the seven cardinal objectives of education — namely, health, command of the fundamental processes, worthy home membership, vocations, citizenship, worthy use of leisure, and ethical character. Connect the subjects by straight lines with the objectives which they help to realize.
2. Why is it maintained that we are not justified in teaching any subject for its own sake?
3. List the arguments in favor of the proposition, "Ignorance of art is more dangerous to the Nation than illiteracy."
4. Make up a list of songs, suitable for the intermediate grades, that have civic values.
5. Prepare a program for a civic-literature assembly in a high school.
6. What other departments might well have coöperated with the art department in carrying out the plan for city beautification?
7. What objections can you see to having pupils who are already in glee clubs, orchestras, and bands admit new members only by vote? Discuss.

8. Discuss the merit in the reading club which is described. What suggestions would you make for the improvement of the organization?
9. Select a few novels, short stories, or plays which have civic value, and which can meet the requirements set down as criteria.
10. How may the teacher increase her influence upon the reading tastes and interests of her pupils?
11. List the objections which can be placed against instruction in sex hygiene in the elementary schools. What merit can you see in the experiment in civic-biology, as carried on by the Oregon Social Hygiene Society?
12. What reasons can you give for connecting assembly exercises with the teaching of the regular subjects, in order to bring out civic values to the fullest extent?

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CHAPTER VIII

UTILIZING SPECIAL OCCASIONS IN CIVIC TRAINING

Types of special occasions. Numerous special opportunities arise in the course of the school year which may be utilized for the teaching of citizenship. One should not merely wait until these occasions arise, though, but should anticipate them. Among those that lie outside the regular program of class and social exercises in most schools are the national and State holidays; special days and weeks; fairs, carnivals, and exhibits; and the school assemblies. These may be taken as types of special occasions which offer citizenship-teaching opportunities.

A criticism that is commonly brought against the usual types of special exercises is their lack of civic objective. Often the teachers look upon them as an added burden, without any compensating value. Often, such exercises as are planned are formal and lifeless. It should always be the rule, in such matters, that whatever is taken up should be handled with spirit and enthusiasm. When this is done, many values may be realized. Among these are an improved school morale, cheerfulness and good humor, pride in the school, self-confidence, higher appreciation of the service of others, and higher civic ideals. The management of such exercises, with concrete examples, will constitute the subject-matter of this chapter.

The observance of holidays. The commemoration of holidays always brings the opportunity for teaching new civic lessons to the children. They are seldom bored, even by successive yearly programs that are similar in nature. At all events, if given a share in planning the exercises, if they choose parts which have been often given before, it is

almost certain that they will be such as will be most worth repeating.

The first step is to arrange the calendar of programs for the year. This may be done by a pupil committee. Occasions that will be sure to appear on the calendar are Labor Day, Columbus Day, Armistice Day, Thanksgiving, Christmas, Lincoln's Birthday, Washington's Birthday, St. Valentine's Day, Easter, Mother's Day, Flag Day, State Day, and Memorial Day. The next decision may concern such points as whether all special days listed shall be observed in one year or not; whether special programs shall be prepared in each room on all occasions, or whether some or all rooms shall be combined in assemblies to which each contributes only one or two numbers; whether special invitations shall be issued to the patrons or not; and what the general nature of the programs shall be. What the answers to these questions will be will depend much upon the age and progress of the pupils, the type of school and community, and the past experiences and customs. In general, the following suggestions will apply:

1. Not all holidays should be observed by each group every year. Center upon those that connect up most closely with the regular school work. For example, suppose the course of study requires the study of Columbus in the fifth and seventh grades. The observance of Columbus Day by these grades would be expected.
2. Some programs should enlist the effort of the whole school, others belong to separate departments and rooms. The larger civic occasions should be taken advantage of for joint commemoration, each class preparing a part of the program. Lincoln's Birthday is a good example.
3. Preparation for the programs should be carried on as a part of the regular school work. Classes in history, literature, music, drama, and other subjects may be directed towards the event, which serves as a stimulus to better daily work and a demonstration of ability.

4. Parents should always be welcome on these occasions, but it is unnecessary to make special effort to get them to attend more than two or three times during a school year. The best thing to do is to give adequate publicity to the affair, cordially welcome those who come, and have an interesting program.
5. Seldom should anything elaborate be undertaken. The purpose is neither to show off the pupils nor to display their special talents.
6. The programs should be built up of civic content. The vaudeville show, the burlesque, and the merely spectacular should be omitted. Neither is it a time for dull sermonizing. The appeals should in general be to the emotions, and love of country, self-sacrifice, courage, and reverence are proper motives.

Type programs. Summaries of several typical holiday programs are given below. All of these have been tried out, and all also represent pupil leadership in their preparation:

I. COLUMBUS DAY.

1. This program was prepared by fourth-grade girls. The problem, as developed in class, was how to get the most good out of the study of great men connected with American history. The class suggested that they write a play about Columbus and give it as a part of the Columbus Day program.
2. After reading several books on Columbus, it was decided to make the play portray his life and times as accurately as possible. It was agreed that there should be ten characters. Each pupil wrote a play and read it to the group. All had good points, but none seemed satisfactory. The next decision was to rewrite the plays, using any good ideas from the others that they pleased. At the second reading, all decided that one play was outstanding in its good qualities. Therefore, they decided to use it, allowing the author to take the part of Columbus. There was one act, with the following scenes:
 - a. The wanderings of Columbus.
 - b. Columbus in Spain.

- c. The trip across the ocean and the firm resolve of Columbus to continue.
 - d. The discovery of America.
 - e. What we owe to Columbus to-day.
3. After the part of Columbus was disposed of there was no trouble in getting others to take the parts of the King, the Queen, wise men, sailors, and Indians. The children carried out their own ideas of staging the play, prepared their costumes, and did the practice without the teacher being present. Time from three class periods was given for practice. Recess periods were also used because the children were enjoying their play so much.
4. When the day arrived for the program, the fourth and fifth grades furnished the audience. They were so pleased with the entertainment that it was suggested that they share it with three other rooms. This was done to the delight of the fourth grade. The next call came from the parents. On the following Friday afternoon seventy-five parents witnessed the production.

II. FLAG DAY.

- 1. This program was prepared by a committee of junior high school pupils, and was given before the school assembly.
- 2. Program.
 - a. Song: "America for Me" Assembly
 - b. Play: "Making the First Flag" Pupils
 - c. Recitation: "The Flag Goes By" Boy
 - d. Music: Patriotic numbers The orchestra
 - e. Address: "Citizenship To-Day" A visiting speaker
 - f. Song: "America" Assembly
 - g. The Flag Salute Assembly

III. STATE DAY.

- 1. This program was given in a rural consolidated school of twelve grades. The program was prepared by a joint committee representing the school and the community association.
- 2. Program (Forenoon)
 - a. State song Assembly

- b. Pioneer Stories. Pupils and parents
- c. Pageant: The Spirit of Progress Community association
- d. Community dinner Program (Afternoon)
- e. Illustrated lecture: "Our State" A visiting speaker

IV. MOTHERS' DAY.

1. The program was prepared entirely by sixth-grade pupils. Invitations were written to the parents, and corsage bouquets were prepared by the pupils, and presented to the mothers as they entered.

2. Program

- a. Quotations: "Mothers of Men" Pupils
- b. Dramatization: "Acts of Courtesy" in the street car, at the table, in introductions . . . Pupils
- c. Inspection of school work. Included a visit to the class library, a room finished and equipped by the pupils.

- d. A Puppet Play Pupils
Stage, stage properties, and lighting arranged by the cast. Puppets made by the boys in the manual training department and dressed by the girls. The Play included three scenes:

Scene 1. "Bad Children." Showed children, impudent, lazy, noisy, and wasteful, in spite of the love and kindness of their mothers.

Scene 2. "The Warning." The bad children were visited by a good angel, who warned them of severe punishment if they did not change.

Scene 3. "Good Children." Reveals the good influence of the angel's advice.

- e. Refreshments: prepared and served by the pupils.
- f. Songs: "Mother Machree"; "That Old Irish Mother of Mine"; "Home, Sweet Home" Chorus
- g. Play: A few scenes adapted from *Little Women* Girls

Special days and weeks. The demand for participation by the school in special programs, lasting from a day to a week, will nearly always be present. Some will have to be passed by regardless of their worth-whileness. In so doing there will likely have to be a choice between two policies: (1) either to distribute the available time of the school over a great many projects; or (2) settle upon the few which fit in best with the needs of the pupils and the community, and the facilities of the school. The latter will usually be more productive of educational results. The former has the advantage of offering variety, developing initiative, and serving a variety of interests. Some of the forms which are offered for participation may be seen from the partial list given below:

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. National Safety Week. | 9. Forest Protection Week. |
| 2. Fire Prevention Week. | 10. Kindness to Animals Week. |
| 3. National Education Week. | 11. Health Week. |
| 4. Child Labor Week. | 12. Know the Community Week. |
| 5. Constitution Week. | 13. Be On Time Week. |
| 6. American Speech Week. | 14. Buy at Home Week. |
| 7. Children's Book Week. | 15. Thrift Week. |
| 8. National Song Week. | |

Akin to these are essay and speaking contests, which have for their aim the forming of opinion and the collection of information favorable to a cause or interest. There may be a high degree of civic and personal value to be derived from engaging in these projects. The following subjects will serve as typical illustrations of what is meant:

1. How I can make the highways more safe. (By the Safety Council).
2. The effects of the use of cigarettes. (By the Temperance Society).
3. The origin of the name of our State. (By the State Historical Society).

4. The Americanization of Aliens. (By the Civic League).
5. Attractions of the State. (By the State Chamber of Commerce).

Carrying out a special program. Problems of special days and weeks are of two kinds. The first is to find time for the programs, and second to provide for their proper organization and management. The solution of the first either demands a longer school day, the substitution for some other activity, or the correlation of the special program with regular school subjects. If either of the first two plans is adopted, special organizations will be necessary to execute the plan. If the last is adopted, the class, with the teacher as an adviser, may take over the management. Except in the case of special programs which are not connected in any particular way with any subject or department, the last method is best. Thus good roads, safety, fire prevention, child labor, the Constitution, and forest protection could be turned over to classes in civics. The choral society may well be chosen to manage the program for National Song Week. Speech Week and Book Week properly belong to the classes in English.

The principles of action to be followed do not differ materially from those to be used in carrying out any group program. The enthusiasm of the pupils for the project should first be built up. Use publicity methods, and get students, teachers, and community leaders to endorse it. Open up many ways for coöperation. See that committees are appointed and set to work. Ask the pupils for suggestions, and bestow praise for any good ideas. See that some means of recognizing those who do the best work is provided — prizes, celebrations, exhibits of products, and the publication of names. Appeal to the school or class spirit, call attention to past successes, and perhaps stir up a little rivalry by calling attention to what others are doing. Concentrate on the problem, keep what you undertake within

the range of the pupils' abilities, keep cheerful and hopeful, and work hard up to the last minute. This is the way to make special campaigns count for citizenship.

Examples of special programs. Two examples of special-week programs are given. The first embodies the suggestions of the American Legion and the National Education Association for Education Week, the second of the American Speech Committee for "Better English" Week:

I. AMERICAN EDUCATION WEEK.

1. General slogans for the week.

Children to-day, citizens to-morrow.

A man of knowledge increaseth might.

No illiteracy by 1927.

A sick body makes a sick mind.

2. Daily programs.

a. Sunday.

For God and Country.

Education in the home.

Education in the school.

Education in the church.

Slogan — *A Godly nation cannot fail.*

b. Monday.

American Citizenship Day.

Children to-day, citizens to-morrow.

Naturalization for all men and women.

Help the immigrants to become Americans.

The duties of citizenship.

Slogans — *Americans all by 1927.*

Visit the schools to-day.

c. Tuesday.

Patriotism Day.

The flag — the emblem of freedom.

Music as a nation builder.

Universal use of the English language in the United States.

The citizens' duty to vote.

Slogans — *Visit the schools to-day.*

Patriotism is the basis of a happy Nation.

d. Wednesday.

School and Teacher Day.

The necessity of schools.

The teacher as a nation builder.

The schools' influence on the coming generation.

America as an educated nation.

Slogans — *Visit the schools to-day.*

Better-trained and better-paid teachers.

More adequate school buildings.

e. Thursday.

Illiteracy Day.

Illiteracy as a blot on our Nation.

No illiteracy in 1927.

A citizen's duty toward the uneducated.

No immigration until illiteracy among native and foreign born is removed.

Slogans — *Let every citizen adopt and teach an illiterate to read and write.*

Visit the schools to-day.

f. Friday.

Equality of Opportunity Day.

Equality of opportunity in education for every American boy and girl.

Rural schools — city schools.

High schools — colleges.

American institutions.

Slogans — *Visit the schools to-day.*

Let all have an equal opportunity for an education.

A square deal for the country boy and girl.

g. Saturday.

Physical Education Day.

Playgrounds.

Physical education and hygiene.

The great out-of-doors.

The country's need in conservation, and development of forests, soils, and other resources.

Slogans — *A sick body makes a sick mind.*

Playgrounds in every community.

Athletes all.

II. AMERICAN SPEECH WEEK.

1. Monday — Announcements by a special issue of the school paper, by slogans, posters, and tags, and perhaps a general assembly.
2. Tuesday — A contest in pronunciation at general assembly, and demonstrations of various kinds in all classes.
3. Wednesday — A contest in debating, oral reading, or story telling. A literary program.
4. Thursday — A general assembly, with visiting speakers from the community, or elsewhere.
5. Friday — A play, parade, or pageant.

Fairs and exhibits. Fairs and exhibits are used for a variety of purposes. Their civic values are found in: (1) their teaching effectiveness in matters of civic importance; (2) the practice afforded in coöperation; (3) the stimulus to community interest; and (4) their use in developing individual powers and providing for recognition of individual contributions. They may be very successfully related to campaigns for school and community improvement. The spirit and purpose of the school should always be shown at their best. The materials themselves may illustrate the typical as well as the superior. They may be collected from time to time in the course of the regular school work. It is advisable to encourage pupils also to prepare something especially for exhibit purposes.

A few principles of action should be carefully observed. Features of street carnivals should be ruled out from the start. Any attempt to exploit the public through the use of doll racks, ring tossing, fortune telling for money, lotteries, and wheels of fortune should be forbidden. In general, all fairs and exhibits should be free. If any charge is made, honest value should be given in return. Pupils placed in charge of booths should be modestly dressed, should be polite and attentive, and should owe their selection to the

desire of their classmates to do them special honor. A few brief examples are given below, features of which may be combined in a single fair or exhibit if desired:

1. In connection with a school- and home-garden campaign, the product of the pupils' work was exhibited early in the fall. Posters announcing the exhibit and inviting the public were prepared in the periods given to art work. Booths were decorated with the school colors, and attended by pupil industrial-club leaders. Products were plainly marked with the name of the school, and of the pupil exhibiting them. On the last evening of the exhibit a special program was given, to which all were invited. Music was furnished by the school, a group of club members repeated the workers' creed, and an address was delivered by an extension worker from the State Agricultural College. The only awards were ribbons. The best of the exhibit was sent to the State Fair.
2. A "Better English" exhibit was a feature of a week's campaign during American Speech Week. Posters, slogans, mottoes, and pictures were posted in the hallways and classrooms. A display was also put up in the windows of a downtown store. The theaters ran slides, each show containing announcements of the exhibit. As a part of the campaign, high-school pupils went to the grade schoolrooms and gave talks on better English, and the daily assemblies were given over to debates, songs, and speeches, all having better English as their objective. At the end of the week, the exhibit was exchanged with other schools.
3. The department of physical education prepared an exhibit entitled "Healthland." Posters illustrated posture, and charts called attention to weight standards, and health habits. Demonstrations of correctional treatment of defects was one feature. The civic league displayed models emphasizing the danger from improper sewerage disposal, and showing the correct methods. A play festival and athletic contest wound up the week's program.
4. Many schools exhibit annually samples of classroom work, such as papers in penmanship, spelling, composition, and history. In exhibits of this type, every pupil should be represented.

5. The continuous exhibit is growing in favor. Cases may be put up on the school grounds near the street, on a favored corner down town, or the use of store windows may be obtained. The exhibits may specialize in specimens of penmanship, manual training, domestic science, civics, art, and commercial subjects. Another method would be to give a week to each class or group and hold it responsible for the preparation and arrangement of the exhibit.
6. Special demonstrations always catch the eye of the passer-by. Thus the various departments may demonstrate their activities in a store window, or in the school on visitor's day. Shoe repairing, the making of clothing, cooking, the work of the commercial department, health plays, gymnastics, and the like are always interesting and instructive.

Assemblies. The school assembly has become the standard method of unifying and coördinating the work of every department and of every group. Two types may be clearly recognized. In the first, regular programs are prepared in which all pupils coöperate daily. The responsibility for the programs rests directly with a director of assembly exercises, and the auditorium is in use the entire school day. This is the system in a school organized on the platoon plan. The second type is where the assembly is a special feature of the school program, and where meetings are held when occasion arises. The second type will be our concern here.

The assembly is a very effective means for building up school spirit, unifying student opinion, and creating school loyalty. Plays, music, stirring speeches, yells, and appeals for the support of team and school develop group consciousness, without which people cannot work well together. Football rallies and "pep" meetings, and concerted cheering for school heroes excite pupils to deeds worthy of group approval. In a disorganized school, or one in which the tone is low, the assembly offers one of the best means of building up morale.

General principles. The meetings should not be too long.

From twenty to thirty minutes is usually sufficient. Perhaps it is better to hold the assemblies in the forenoon. Everything should be so arranged that the programs will move off briskly and without delay. Students should arrange the programs, and often it is best for the president of the student body to preside.

Samples of all the school and community life should be brought in. The class in civics may demonstrate how to vote, may put on a civic play, or sponsor a form of community improvement. The physical education department may offer a program of dances, marches, and drills. The band, glee club, orchestra, and chorus may appear under the auspices of the music club. The reading club may introduce the pupils into the effective use of the library. The athletic association may use the period to get backing for the football team; the domestic science club may take advantage of the opportunity to teach table etiquette; the Boy Scouts may use the time to give a lesson in safety first work. Whatever is of large common interest, and whatever serves to draw the members of the group closer together, has a place on the assembly program.

Examples — A grade-school assembly. The report below tells how the assembly period was used to promote citizenship in one grade school:

One of the features of the Longfellow school which has been an important factor in citizenship training is the school assembly, held every Tuesday afternoon at two o'clock. The squads, under the leadership of their line captains, and unattended by the teachers, file into the assembly room and take their appointed places. The teachers are relieved of all responsibility for "assembly etiquette," hence they sit in another part of the auditorium. The children appreciate the trust imposed upon them, and can be depended upon to behave sensibly and give respectful attention to the program.

The assembly in this school is a clearing house for school informa-

tion, school policies, school purposes, and school laws. The whole group considers matters which affect the whole group. Children who have anything to say are given an audience, so the assembly becomes a forum.

Since the assembly has become a part of the regular program the pupils are as free from embarrassment when speaking from the stage as within their own classrooms. The glee clubs and orchestras give concerts, dramas and plays are presented, original poems and compositions are read, and patriotic programs are rendered. Speakers are invited to address the pupils on citizenship, and many helpful talks on loyalty, patriotism, honesty, courtesy, and clean living are given.

At one of the meetings a boy enthusiastically advertised the popcorn sale which was to take place at recess. He said the money raised would be used for needed material in the "sight-saving" room. Another pupil made a plea for phonograph records and magazines, which were to be taken to the "Old Folks' Home" as a Christmas remembrance.

Occasionally the spirit of the citizenship pledge is revived by some little ceremony, in connection with the repetition of the following:

"We, the citizens of Longfellow school, in order to maintain an excellent school, give a square deal to every one, keep our building quiet and orderly, assist our principal and teachers to enforce the school laws, and make this school a safe and a happy place for all its members, do pledge ourselves to uphold the principles for which this school stands."

Any modern school can supply numerous other instances of successful assemblies. The Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, publishes a booklet entitled *Some Uses of School Assemblies*. The teacher is referred to this for types of programs, detailed programs, suggestions for organization, and lists of assembly topics. Of the last, a list of proven value is given below:

1. A practical demonstration of Boy Scout work.
2. A booster assembly "The Spirit of — High School." Athletics, Scholarship, Music, Dramatics, Loyalty, and Hard

- Work appear in costume, and appeal to the pupils in the interest of a better school.
3. Debate on the relative merits of the local football team and their rivals, just before a game. Speeches humorous and spirited.
 4. Literary programs, featuring patriotic compositions by societies.
 5. Talks on Success, Honesty, Good Citizenship, etc., by visitors.
 6. A pageant of peace. Pupils portray the life and contributions of the leading countries of the world, and show the destructiveness of war.
 7. Moving pictures and stereopticon views.
 8. Parliamentary law — a town meeting.

Summary. There are many opportunities for teaching citizenship outside of the usual school program of studies and social activities. Among these may be mentioned holidays, special days and weeks, fairs and exhibits, and assemblies. To be most successful they should be planned for in advance, and should have a civic objective. The pupils should always share in the management of special programs. In all cases, the programs and activities should try to show the school at its best. Anything that is purposeless, or in the slightest sense unsocial, should not be tolerated. Whatever the activity planned, every one in the school should enter into the program with enthusiasm, and should stay by it loyally until it is completed.

EXERCISES AND PROBLEMS

1. Name as many other occasions as you can that properly belong with holidays, special days and weeks, fairs and exhibits, and assemblies.
2. Discuss the statement that the special school exercises commonly lack the civic objectives. Can you give any illustrations to prove your position?
3. What advantages are there in having a Lincoln Day program given in the school assembly, with each class contributing, over having several programs given in the separate rooms? Discuss.

4. Explain how a Valentine Day program might be prepared that would have civic values.
5. Tell how you would redirect the customary destructiveness of children on Hallowe'en into an organized endeavor to protect property.
6. What are the advantages in having the children coöperate in carrying out special day programs, over the old method of teacher management?
7. You are asked to have your classes coöperate in Labor Day, Constitution Week, and Columbus Day programs. The requests come from leading community organizations, and you do not like to refuse. What will be your position? If you accept, how will you manage so as to get the most good for the pupils and lose the least time from their regular work?
8. Discuss the value in calling the attention of the pupils and the public to such problems as illiteracy, in the National Education Week program.
9. How can you justify the observance of American Speech Week as a civic obligation?
10. Write down a list of the subjects ordinarily taught in the public school. Opposite this list write down the names of the special week and day campaigns that seem to you most important from a civic point of view. Connect the subjects with their related campaigns.
11. Work out a plan by which a continuous exhibit of the civic activities of the school may be kept before the people of the community.
12. Discuss the propriety of introducing the methods of the street carnival into the school.

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CHAPTER IX

CIVIC TRAINING THROUGH SCHOOL SERVICE

Civic values in school service. The coöperation of the pupils is necessary in order to carry on the life of the school. There are many things which must be done — caring for supplies, handling materials, guiding visitors, keeping the desks and rooms clean, and caring for the safety of the pupils. In the traditional school the burden of this necessary work falls upon the teacher. In the modern school the aid of the pupils is enlisted. The general results are usually better as a consequence, and, in addition, another opportunity for civic training is utilized.

The principle that learning results from pupil activity has already been stated. There can be no education without it. The traditional school stressed teacher activity. It tended to reduce the pupil to a part of passivity. He must listen to what the teacher said and observe what the teacher did. The teacher whose room was the quietest was the best teacher. The pupil who was subdued in manner, and who moved only at the command of the teacher, was the best pupil.

In the modern school the pupils are actually living citizenship every day. All the opportunities for public service are taken advantage of. The young citizen learns to serve the public by doing things for the school. He is also doing things for himself, but self is subordinated to the common good. He acquires the habit of coöperating with others. He gets practice in leadership. He learns to take responsibility. If the tasks are poorly done, the individual and the group suffer. The careless and the neglectful can be called

to account and corrected. The experiences are real, the results are concrete. There is a real field for public achievement.

How to organize school service. In order to get the best results, the pupils should be well organized for school service. Begin by requesting little services of individuals and groups. A girl may be asked to straighten the books on the shelves. A boy may be called upon to take a book to the library. A committee may be appointed to act as ushers on Parents' Day. Pupils almost always respond willingly to such requests, and, if they receive any encouragement and recognition, will often take the initiative in many other school tasks.

While appointments by the teacher will often need to be used, a chance must be given for volunteer service. The first method enables the teacher to pick the most competent. The second requires that she be impartial in distributing duties. In the first case, the motive of the pupil may be to please or to satisfy the teacher. He may do the task, but do it grudgingly. In the second case, the motive is more likely to spring from self-desire to work for others. Recognize pupils in turn. In some instances, it may be well to select those who will do the best. In other cases, the less efficient should be appointed. The same rule applies here that applies to practice in reading or writing. The teacher does not confine the opportunities for learning these branches only to the most expert.

The third step is to suggest to the pupils that they elect the individuals who are to perform school service. Two methods may be employed: (1) on the basis of merit; and (2) on the basis of rotation. The first is preferable. It puts a premium upon preparation and insures the best service. It is most in accord with the habits and attitudes which the teacher will desire to render permanent. However, to fol-

low the method strictly would exclude some children from participation. It will therefore be necessary, in part at least, to adopt a system of rotation in office. The periods of service should be short in order that the burden may not become too heavy on any one, and to give chances for try-outs in many lines.

Formal organization. The informal organization for school service which has been described should in time be supplemented by clubs or societies, with rules and officers. A school service league is recommended because its purpose is definite, and it may be affiliated with classroom groups of the same type. The work of drawing up rules, the election of officers, and the listing of duties should be done by the pupils. A good way to lead up to the organization is to call upon the pupils to suggest things which they can do, either singly or together, for the general good.

Teachers will find outside juvenile organizations represented among her pupils — boy scouts, the junior red cross, etc. The question naturally arises whether these cannot be utilized in working for the school. The advantages of such a course are: (1) they are already organized; (2) they have considerable prestige from their large membership; and (3) such service is in line with their main objectives. The disadvantages are: (1) they do not always include the entire group membership; (2) the interest in them may vary widely; and (3) their leaders may attempt to control the school program. The best policy to pursue is probably this: form a school service organization comprising the entire group, and use and encourage worthy outside organizations as well.

How pupils may help. The types of school service which the pupils can render will vary with the age and experience of the pupils and the character of the school and the community. Little children will need so much direction that only a few things can be attempted. A few of the best

should be trained early in matters of routine, the others learning through imitation. Older pupils may be called on for many duties for which they have had but little preparation. Assignments should be made early enough to enable them to plan a course of action. Older pupils may often help to initiate younger members in special activities, and an older pupil may often be assigned to act as leader of a younger group. The experience involved in the contacts between older and younger pupils, as leaders and apprentices, are valuable ones.

In general, three types of activities in which pupils may serve will be found in every school. The first is concerned with pupil service in getting the school started. The second is concerned with the routine matters from day to day in which every pupil should share. The third concerns special occasions and duties, such as assemblies, libraries, savings banks, thrift and salvage, fire prevention, safety, and the like. Illustrations of the actual work of pupils in typical service work will be given.

Helping organize the school. The first day of school provides many opportunities for helpful service. If a service league is in existence, each room chapter may be expected to supply its quota of helpers. These report to the principal promptly on the opening day. One squad may be assigned to take charge of the playground, start a few games, see that the equipment is in shape, and watch out for young pupils. Another squad may meet visitors, and take them to the various rooms or to the office. The principal will have need of several boys to act as messengers to the teachers and the janitor. Some of the older girls should direct the little children to their rooms. A traffic squad should be on hand at the principal crossings, and to keep the children on the playground from dashing out into the streets. Boy scouts may be wisely used for this duty. In the high schools, the

principal need will be for ushers and guides. Suitable badges or insignia should be worn, and it may be well to have a captain in charge of each squad.

The teacher may also assign minor tasks to pupils the first day. A committee may receive new pupils, explain the organizations, and show them about the building and grounds. The library, the assembly room, and the playgrounds are special points to be noted. Others may lay out books, put supplies on each desk, distribute the enrollment cards, and see that there are crayon and erasers at hand. A third committee may look after the room decoration — pictures, flowers, curtains, etc. One or two of the boys should report to the teacher for errands and messenger service. Occasionally larger pupils may help the teachers in putting fire-drill signals and assignments on the board, bringing books from the library, and getting the term's supplies.

After the opening bell sounds, the teacher may appoint temporary room monitors to collect the enrollment cards, and distribute supply lists. If free textbooks are furnished, a library committee may take over nearly all the responsibility of checking out the books. Messenger service is needed in order to get reports to the principal as soon as the enrollment is finished. Emphasize the need of quietness, respect, reasonable haste, and responsibility, and never fail to show appreciation.

Helping with school routine. A valuable service to the school may be rendered in keeping the daily routine going. The special types of service which pupils are best fitted for are seven in number: (1) handling and collecting materials; (2) drill and marching; (3) health and cleanliness; (4) absences and attendance; (5) visitors; (6) safety; and (7) thrift. Every pupil should make some contribution in one or more of these respects. While preferences are to be con-

sidered, others are required of all, and with those that are alternative each pupil should be expected to take his turn.

Handling and collecting materials. In the elementary school, the problem of handling wraps is not an inconsiderable one. The teacher should first decide, with the help of the pupils, on the most convenient and efficient method of doing this. Next train a squad, and call upon the others to observe the method. At the end of a service period, say one week, let another squad take its turn. For passing books and papers, row monitors may be selected. A standing committee to look after current supplies, such as ink, crayon, and erasers, and such other material as is supplied by the school, will relieve the teacher of much work and at the same time develop a sense of responsibility. Another committee should look after the books belonging to the room, and see that library books are cared for and returned.

A custodian of property may look after playground equipment belonging to the room — bats, balls, mitts, tennis nets, etc. As this is a position which intermediate children will probably prize, turns should be taken. Another committee may take charge of the room bulletin board. They should see that rules governing the use of the board are observed, take down old notices, and may decide what shall be posted. Illustrative materials, such as maps, charts, and pictures, should be brought from home by the pupils and turned over to the same committee for care and use. If there is a school museum, a stereopticon, and a moving-picture machine, the same committee might care for them.

Drill and marching. Probably few modern schools will care to insist upon military precision in marching into and out of the building. The size of the grounds, the character of the entrances, and the amount of traffic on adjacent streets are factors to be considered. If it is found desirable to have the pupils fall into line, room captains and squad

leaders should be selected to give commands and maintain order. The school which requires marching makes a better appearance than the one where informal entrance and exit are permitted. Since there are some occasions when ability to keep step and move in order is desirable, there ought to be some instruction of this kind. Brisk, lively music improves order, and lends an air of smartness that is inspiring.

One of the occasions when strict observance of rules is required is during fire drills. The rules should be few and clear. They should be followed invariably in practice. Appoint squad leaders (one for each row) and a room captain. Instruct the children to march quickly to the place set aside for them, and to remain under the charge of the captain and leaders until ordered to return or until they are dismissed. Some of the older boys should be assigned the duty of searching the rooms to see that all are out. The teacher is the last to leave. Older pupils may be sent to lead the lines from the primary grades. In some schools, the older boys assemble just outside the main entrance for fire fighting, under the direction of the principal. The fire drill offers a splendid chance to teach the necessity of prompt obedience, and no deviation from the strict letter of the law should be tolerated.

Health and cleanliness. An excellent service can be given by pupils in setting up and maintaining standards of health and cleanliness. A health commission might take care of heating and ventilation, and general sanitary conditions in the room and building. In the lower grades, daily inspection of desks, hands, nails, and teeth have the effect of making for cleanliness. This should be done by the pupil health officer. Health crusades and campaigns may be planned by the group. The following are typical examples of the health-service activities in the elementary schools of a large city:

1. A health play of three acts was given, to teach the rules of health. Each act was put on by a different group.
2. Health books were made from pictures clipped from magazines. Anything illustrating a good health habit was used — a child sleeping in the open air, a baby just from the bath and dressed in clean clothes, a group exercising out of doors, suitable breakfast menus, etc.
3. Better-health posters were prepared by the art classes.
 - a. Clean hair — brush, comb. Below a little verse on cleanliness.
 - b. Clean nails — scissors, file, bit of verse.
 - c. Plenty of sleep — an owl, motto.
 - d. Drink milk — calf, puppy, children.
4. Competition: children divided into two groups. Given names of automobiles, ships, colleges, cities. Race won by group having cleanest hands.
5. Better-health day. Program for school arranged by pupils. Lectures, pictures, exhibits, and essays; ground and building cleaned.

Absences and attendance. Regularity in attendance is an important factor in civic education. Pupils that are out of school become discouraged, lag behind, are eliminated, or, if they continue in school, become retarded and potential discipline or delinquent cases. One of the first services the pupils can perform is to look over their neighborhood for new families with children not in school. These should be reported to the teacher, and finally to the attendance officer. A good amount of the time of the principal may also be saved on attendance cases if the pupils are instructed to find out why their fellows are absent. A campaign for better attendance should be put on by the pupils in schools falling below the norm, or in schools where it is below the usual standards for the system.

Absences offer a fine field for activity by the welfare league. In one high school, the girls' league looks after all cases of absence among the girls on account of sickness. A

committee visits the home, carries flowers to the patient, and keeps her informed as to assignments, if she is able to study. On her return, a committee helps her catch up with her work.

Visitors. Visitors should be well received and made acquainted with the school. While the teacher should always greet a visitor, in the upper grades and in the high schools students may be entrusted with the duty of showing them about the building. This is usually best handled by a committee, the members taking turns, so that only one is on duty with each party. In the larger schools the principal may send for the guide and have him meet the visitor at the office. The visitor is usually pleased with the interest of the students, and the latter gain an increased pride in the school and in education by reason of their special obligation to make a good impression.

Safety. Safety-First campaigns, and instruction in safety methods, have uniformly reduced the accident rate in schools. One city reports that there have been no fatal accidents in one district for two years as a consequence of the introduction of safety education, though the district has an unfavorable environment and previously had a bad record for injuries. There have been no accidents since to children on the school grounds, nor on the road to and from school. Pupil traffic-squads are regularly employed by many schools. They see that little children get across dangerous crossings safely, police the playgrounds, and take the lead in safety campaigns. Some of the concrete accomplishments of pupils in making for safety are given herewith:

1. Upper-grade boys were instrumental in inducing the school board to build a wire fence along the side of the school ground adjacent to a street on which traffic was heavy. Prior to the building of the fence a number of little children were injured by darting from the playground into the street.

2. High-school pupils worked out several "safety stories" and plays. These were made a part of assembly programs before the lower grades.
3. A "Safety-First" exhibit was prepared by junior high-school pupils, and sent about to the different schools of the city.
4. At the request of the Boy Scouts of a large grammar school, the city council permitted one of the streets bordering the school grounds to be closed during school hours.
5. A pupil welfare committee took charge of the opening exercises for two weeks, and gave a course in safety instruction, consisting of pantomimes, songs, slogans, addresses by citizens and officers, traffic rules and regulations, and suggestions on safety at home, on the playground, on the street, on vacations, in industry, and on trains and autos.
6. During the course of a safety-first campaign the pupils made first-aid boxes for each room. The boxes were prepared by the manual training students.

Thrift. Pupils can also be led to perform a service to the school through the encouragement of thrift. Three purposes may be utilized: (1) taking care of the savings; (2) protecting school property; and (3) turning over the proceeds received from the sale of salvage to the school for the purchase of equipment. Savings are cared for in some schools by a pupil cashier, who keeps a careful record of each deposit. As soon as the cashier has twenty-five cents the money is turned over to the teacher, who buys a thrift stamp with it. Stamps are given to the children as soon as each one has a sufficient deposit to his credit. In other schools deposits are made directly with the teacher, the children through their thrift committee educating the group to the value in systematic savings.

Systematic instruction may also be given in the protection of school property. The children should be taught that they have a share in the ownership of the school, and a responsibility for its care. A strong attitude of disapproval against destruction or injury to the building, grounds, or

equipment may be cultivated. The boys can be led to make repairs to equipment, and the girls to mend the books. A special committee can be formed to look after the condition of the toilets. The whole spirit of vandalism on Halloween, very common in many communities, was completely changed in one city by an organized campaign for the protection of property.

A feature of both safety and thrift which is of great importance is concerned with fire prevention. The election or appointment of a fire chief and assistants is a good way to motivate the movement in the lower grades. In both the elementary and the high schools the observance of fire-prevention week serves admirably as a means of teaching the importance of the problem and the methods of prevention.

A typical program might include the following:

1. A contest between schools on such points as cleanliness from fire hazards, efficiency in drill, and suggestions in essay form for protection of the school.
2. An assembly program, in which fire prevention pictures are shown.
3. An exhibit giving the extent of fire losses for several years, the principal causes and origins of fires, modern means of fire protection, what to do in case of fire, and fire prevention slogans.
4. An assembly program, consisting of songs, address by principal, play by pupils, address by school fire chief, and address by city fire chief.
5. Opening exercises devoted to safety from fire.

The third aspect of thrift service by the pupils consists in the collection of waste and wornout materials, which may be disposed of to dealers in salvage. In some of the larger cities as much as one hundred thousand dollars a year is salvaged by school children, and the money received from it given to the school. Such saving should be systematic

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1. Old papers and magazines may be brought to the school at any time by the pupils. These should be packed and sold whenever the accumulation is sufficient to warrant it. In the beginning a drive or two may be necessary.
2. Shoes and clothing that would otherwise be thrown away are brought to school and turned over to the attendance department. Shoes are repaired by the boys in manual training. The girls in the domestic science classes see that the clothing is cleaned and made wearable. In one large city school system, 594 pairs of shoes and 1675 garments were distributed in a single year.
3. Drives for rags, old iron, tin foil, and similar materials are now part of the regular thrift program of many schools. The proceeds go for equipment, hot lunches, dental clinics, health centers, shoes and clothing, or are invested in bonds. In one county the children are maintaining a health nurse by means of funds gathered from such miscellaneous sources, and in a small city a good dental clinic.
4. In the wood-working department of a large grammar school the boys collect old lumber and boxes, which they give to the school or use in their own work.

Raising money for the schools. A special type of service which is similar to the preceding is the use of pupils in raising money for the schools. A method commonly employed is to prepare an entertainment, and charge an admission fee. If this is not overdone, patrons will respond loyally. The maximum number of charge affairs of the general entertainment kind is two a year. The program should be well worth the admission price, and the money should go into some substantial and necessary bit of school equipment or service. It should never be spent for the support of ath-

letics, the school paper, or something of transitory value. A piano, moving-picture machine, phonograph, playground equipment, library books, are examples of good investments for such public funds. They are tangible things that can be used by the whole community.

Programs should include as many pupils as possible. Parents like to see their children on the stage, and children like to display their talents before the community. Avoid making individuals too conspicuous. Group features are better than those that depend upon the individual. Long piano or violin solos, which show off the ability of one or two pupils, should be left off the program. Introduce features taken from the assembly, opening exercises, or ordinary classroom activities. Commence planning a long time in advance, and do not emphasize perfection to the extent of making the children nervous and self-conscious. Alternate pupils in the course of the two programs from the rôle of performer to the rôle of spectator. If this is done, the performers may not be asked to pay admission charges. If each entertainment depends upon a picked lot it is better to see that all pay an entrance fee, which should in any case be less than that charged the general public. Care for this matter by carefully explaining to the children why charges are made or not made. It is often a good idea to get the coöperation of a community association, and it may be wise to put the affair in charge of the Parent-Teacher Association.

Observing the cautions that have been given, a program may be prepared in which the pupils not only profit educationally and socially, but in which they are a direct help to the school. Two types of programs are illustrated below. One of these is general in character, and is given by the entire school; the other is more special and is given by a department:

I. ENTERTAINMENT BY THE SCHOOL.

1. Flag drill — Primary group.
2. "The Spirit of the — School" — A play by the seventh and eighth grades: athletics, scholarship, music, dramatics, hard work, loyalty, etc. in costume.
3. Songs — Selected girls' chorus.
4. The American Code — Fourth-grade boys.
5. A puppet show — Fifth and sixth grades.
6. Music — School orchestra.
7. Demonstration of first-aid work — Boy Scouts or Junior Red Cross.
8. Folk dance — Pupils of the second and third grades.

II. ENTERTAINMENT BY THE DOMESTIC SCIENCE DEPARTMENT — A STYLE SHOW.

1. Bed-time scene — Primary children wearing night dresses they had made and carrying candlesticks and dolls.
2. Play scene — Intermediate pupils, wearing play aprons and carrying toy balloons.
3. Drill — Little girls — Japanese Polly Prim, kimonos, serving aprons.
4. Final showing — Girls of the upper grades and high school — fancy blouses, gingham, white, and organdie dresses, hats.

Various methods of helping. The list which has been given by no means exhausts the ways in which pupil energies may be turned to civic usefulness, helping both themselves and the school. In working out a practical program for a school, teachers will necessarily be guided by local needs and opportunities as well as by the abilities and interests of the pupils. The forms of service are as numerous as the needs. The teacher should select wisely from the many possibilities, and use her originality in adapting her selections to the community. In order to indicate what further may be done, a summary of actual achievements in different schools is herewith given:

1. The senior class of a high school on graduating gave one hundred dollars, as the nucleus of a museum fund. This has

since been added to, and the school now has one of the most complete collections of birds, insects, flowers, shells, coral, agricultural products, tree parts, coal, silk, wool, cotton, tapioca, cocoa, sugar, minerals, rocks, relics, and phonograph records, and pictures to be found in the State. The materials are in almost constant use throughout the school system.

2. In a recent bond campaign for school buildings, the pupils prepared parade banners, window posters, badges, wrote and sung bond songs, made four-minute speeches at public meetings, and all participated in the parade.
3. The ninth-grade pupils set out a row of trees around the school grounds, and put in a new walk from the street to the entrance of the building.
4. A sixth-grade class economized on movies, candies, and chewing gum to buy pencil sharpeners.
5. An upper-grade welfare league brought plants and flowers for the schoolrooms, set out numerous trees and shrubs about the grounds, took charge of new pupils, sent notes to the sick, wrote plays for assembly, collected and posted courtesy rules, and taught games to the little children.
6. In a village school of twelve grades, the pupils take great interest in school gardens. The proceeds from the sale of vegetables, flowers, and plants are turned over to the school as an equipment fund. The gardens are cared for during vacation by volunteer pupil aid.

Principles governing pupil service. Whatever is attempted in this line should be in accord with the general principles of democratic education. There should be no attempt to force activities which have no meaning and no civic value. The duties should be the essential and useful ones, without which a school cannot operate. They should be pupil duties, not teacher duties. They become pupil duties whenever the returns to the pupils are greater because of their participation than they would be if performed by the teacher for the pupils. Some of the other more important guiding principles are:

1. The pupils should not be exploited. This means that they will not be used merely to make a show, to satisfy some outside interest desirous of propagandizing the school, nor kept at school service when self-service is more badly needed.
2. Service should not, except in extreme cases, be compulsory. It should be given voluntarily, and should be pleasurable. The teacher should guard against any form of coercion, except where it appears that a pupil is shirking his responsibility through laziness, or for a similar reason. In this case, the teacher's decree would best be supported by the group. Service should be looked upon as a privilege.
3. The assignments should be sufficiently varied to prevent loss of interest. The teacher should encourage and praise judiciously. A sense of justice requires that turns be taken. If unable to decide a point easily, resort to the well-approved device of drawing lots.
4. Recognize every service rendered, taking into consideration both the spirit shown and the results. Cheering for leaders, special honors, badges, banners, emblems, letters, insignia, and public mention are devices which are suitable.
5. Make use of the general idea to motivate and vitalize the usual school studies. Those who learn to spell, who become proficient in mathematics, and who make good records in history, also reflect credit upon their school and do it a real service.

Summary. The necessary work of the school cannot be carried on well without the help of the pupils. When properly organized, school service is a valuable means of developing civic spirit and of giving useful educational experiences. Occasions for pupil service are found at the opening of the school, in carrying on the school routine, and in a number of special situations. The training received is not only training for future civic life; it is actual present citizenship.

EXERCISES AND PROBLEMS

1. Connect school service with as many of the civic virtues which it develops as you can.
2. Why is it contrary to civic principles to select only the best for the various forms of school service which pupils can give?
3. Make up a list of leadership opportunities which an elementary school offers in the line of school service.
4. Give the arguments for and against requiring formal marching into and out of the building at dismissal and opening. On what occasions or under what conditions does it seem indispensable? What civic values lie on the two sides of the question?
5. Present the arguments against school entertainments for which an admission fee is charged. Would you or would you not require the performers to pay an admission fee? Discuss.
6. Suggest a method by which the public may be kept fully informed as to the disposition of funds arising from entertainments, or from the sale of salvage.
7. Plan an assembly program for the first day of school, keeping in mind two leading aims: the development of school spirit, and informing pupils about the school program and including rules and regulations.
8. In one school pupil-helpers or apprentices are regularly assigned to higher classes. Discuss the probable values in the scheme.
9. Prepare a program of pupil service for the last day of school. Have in mind a special group or class.
10. Explain how you would motivate pupil service in taking care of school property.
11. Outline briefly a plan whereby you could: (1) discover the approximate values of common salvage in your district; and (2) collect it for public uses.
12. Point out how the opening exercises may be made to contribute to the service program of the school.

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CHAPTER X

METHODS WHICH DEVELOP THE CAPACITY FOR INDEPENDENT WORK

Types of methods. The preceding chapters of this section have been concerned largely with the question "What should we teach to develop good citizenship?" It was seen, however, that materials could not be sharply separated from the ways of using them. The differences to be found in the three chapters which follow will be differences of emphasis. The principal question which we shall attempt to answer is "How shall we deal with the civic materials after they have been selected and organized in a course of study?" For illustration of rule and principles we shall feel free to refer to real teaching experiences where both content and method are combined.

Three types of methods will be presented. Their classification depends in the main upon different purposes; to some degree with the kind of material with which each deal; to a lesser extent upon the part played by the teacher.

The first type has for its purpose the development of the capacity for independent work. It has for its subject ways by which the pupils may deal with materials. The project, the laboratory, and the seminar may be taken as examples.

The second type has socialization or adaptation to others as its object. Its subject is ways and means of working with associates. The social method is the usual name for this type.

The third type has for its purpose the presentation of ways by which the teacher can shape the conduct of the pupils through her personal influence. Its subject is guidance.

The first type furnishes the problem for this chapter, and the two remaining types for the two chapters which follow.

Civic values in individual methods. Our ideals and institutions make much of the rights of the individual. Our system of government is based upon the belief that each citizen has the right to play his part in political affairs, independent of every other. The practical realization of such principles requires that a large measure of self-reliance be developed in every one. He must be quick to suggest improved ways of carrying on the common affairs. He must be able to inform himself quickly and accurately respecting questions at issue. He must be able to formulate sound judgments of his own. Values which are claimed for the project, the laboratory, and the seminar are in accord with these requirements. The statements below are offered in evidence:

1. Pupils develop an independent attitude of study.
2. Interest is stimulated in current matters.
3. Pupils learn how to gather information, and acquire skill in the handling of books.
4. Many sources of material are referred to.
5. Pupils learn how to work out their own problems, become more resourceful, and learn to think clearly and logically.
6. There is displayed a greater tolerance towards the views of others, and a higher appreciation of scholarship.
7. The methods provide opportunity for the recognition of initiative, impose responsibility, and make for self-direction, self-reliance, and self-control.

Characteristics of the project. The project has been defined as "a purposeful act typical of a worthy life." Its advent in general education dates only back to the year 1917, though it had long been known in manual training and agriculture. It is an outgrowth of the scientific spirit in education, and its characteristics have many points in common with the laboratory and seminar methods. All owe their origin to the scientific movement. The essential elements in the project and its related methods are as follows:

This article

1. Initiation either entirely or at least in part by the pupils. This means that there is awareness of some difficulty or problem, the solution of which will contribute to the individual's satisfaction.
2. The pupils share largely in evolving an explanation of the difficulty, and in planning methods for its solution.
3. All available sources of information and assistance are drawn upon as they are needed.
4. The solution of the difficulty results in something concrete and objective which is valued for its own sake.
5. The activity is complete in itself. It represents a "unit task," and is not dependent upon future activities for its meaning nor for its value.

Illustrations of projects. The characteristics of a project may be brought out more clearly by giving examples of what a few schools have done with this type of teaching. They may be used to suggest enterprises of a similar kind to other pupils.

I. A "POST-OFFICE" PROJECT — KINDERGARTEN AND FIRST GRADE.

1. **Origin:** In February the children began to show their interest in Valentines. They were busy making them, when one day a child who was a decided leader brought a Valentine to school that had been sent through the mail. This aroused the interest of the other children, and they asked how they could get Valentines through the mail too.
2. **Planning:** The child who brought the Valentine made the suggestion which was adopted. It was to the effect that they build a post-office of their own, and mail their letter in it.
3. **Further development:** Aided by some of the boys a crude post-office was constructed. With this as a start, the children were led to find out what they could about the post-office in the city, the postman, and the method of sending matter through the mails.

They surprised themselves with the number of things they could find out. Each day the building was im-

proved, in line with their added knowledge. A group of the older children, who were especially active, were taken to the post-office for a peep behind the scenes. Many improvements in the school office followed this visit. Letter boxes and stamps were made. A play was prepared in which the children wrote letters, bought stamps, and mailed letters. Postmen collected and delivered mail to every one.

The interest of the children continued for three weeks. The pupils had a post-office of their own, and were very well informed in its work and in writing and mailing letters. Nearly the last thing done was to equip their office with a telephone and with electric lights.

II. "BUILDING A CITY" PROJECT — FOURTH GRADE.

This project originated from a playtime suggestion of one of the pupils. With the help of the teacher, the pupils elected a mayor and other officers. The fire department, health department, and street-cleaning department were each represented by two pupils. Buildings were constructed from blocks, the officers took up their work. The "citizens" commented upon the work of the departments, and the officers explained what they were doing. As the play developed, a city library and several city organizations were founded.

III. A "PEACE DAY" PROJECT — SIXTH GRADE.

The idea of a Peace Day Pageant grew out of the Disarmament Conference. The pupils discussed the horrors and destructiveness of war, and wondered what could be done to bring wars to an end. Some one said that their own community needed to be taught that there should be no more war. The pupils agreed, and commenced to consider means. It was then that the idea was proposed of giving a pageant — "A Dream of Peace" — to which the parents should be invited.

There were three parts. In the first, Education, Fine Arts, Mining, Agriculture, etc., appeared, and told what their values were to human happiness. War, Famine, and Death came next, and destroyed the work which the other institutions had done, and described their part in repeatedly bringing ruin on the world.

A conference of the powers was then called by Truth. Vision

led in the nations of the world, to show what each had contributed. Something characteristic of each country was portrayed. Peace then came in to petition that the happiness of each country and the benefits which she brought might be rendered permanent. Over the protests of War, Peace was crowned. The pageant was closed by singing the Twenty-Third Psalm.

IV. "WHAT A GOOD CITIZEN SHOULD READ" — PROJECT FOR SEVENTH GRADE.

This commenced with a visit to the city library, and an examination of its contents. Book lists were next collected from publishers and librarians. Citizens were asked to recommend good books and magazines. With money raised from a school entertainment, a list of the best books and magazines were purchased. These were put on a special shelf in the library, for the use of the community.

V. A "KNOW YOUR CITY" PROJECT — JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL.

1. Origin: in a city frequently visited by tourists it was found that children were frequently called upon by visitors for information. Some of them were ignorant of the answers to the questions asked, and applied to the school for help in informing themselves.
2. Planning: The matter was discussed at assembly, and many ideas were put forth. At last it was resolved to carry on a contest, to be won by the pupil who knew the most about his city.

The topics on which the contest turned covered every phase of the city's life. Pupils commenced to prepare themselves by the study of its history, location, climate, resources, products, buildings, roads, and streets, neighboring cities and country, the churches, schools, lodges, and nature of its population.

The period covered by the contest was four weeks. A library committee was appointed to gather material and make it accessible. Another committee, composed of a history teacher, the secretary of the chamber of commerce, and a social worker, was chosen to prepare preliminary and final questions for the contest.

3. Further procedure. Considerable publicity was given to the contest by the local papers, and the lively interest of

the parents and of the chamber of commerce stirred up the enthusiasm of the pupils. A public-spirited citizen offered a silver loving cup for the winner.

One day each week was set aside for "quiz day," a twenty minute roll-call period being used. At this time the teachers examined the pupils on some fifty preliminary questions. The method of elimination was that used in the ordinary spelling match. One winner from each room then met in the assembly for the final. At this event about seventy-five questions, not used in the preliminary, were drawn upon. The whole school was present at this contest, and each representative was given the wildest and most enthusiastic ovation from his room mates.

The presentation of the cup to the winner was made a public occasion, with the chamber of commerce in charge.

4. Results. In addition to the large amount of information which was mastered, the pupils became greatly interested in public affairs. At their request, the twenty-minute period is still given to lessons in citizenship. Every teacher has become a teacher of community problems. Pupils frequently call upon the chamber of commerce and public officials for information. There has been much favorable comment from parents, who testify to a new interest in public matters.

VI. "CITY IMPROVEMENT" PROJECT — HIGH SCHOOL

In a small Western town a class in civics came to the conclusion, as a result of their study, that there was a need for improvement in the community. It arranged a series of meetings, and invited parents to attend. As an outcome of its work it helped to secure, among other results, the establishment of a system of garbage collection for the town, the employment of a municipal nurse, and the establishment of a public bathing beach.

Mr. Butler

Sources of projects. The projects which have been described arose, it will have been noted, out of the daily concerns of the community and the nation. Current happenings will, therefore, be the chief source of supply. Most of

them will be suggested by the children. The teacher, being a more skillful observer, will often see many profitable undertakings to which she can tactfully direct the pupils' attention. Newspapers, magazines, textbooks, and special occasions may introduce the needed opportunities. The list which follows represents general subjects which have grown into promising projects:

1. The pioneer community — project in construction.
2. Great civic events — projects in dramatization.
3. A community guidebook.
4. "Our community twenty-five years from now."
5. A clean city campaign.

6. A civic reading club.
7. A public information bureau.
8. Better health in school.
9. An old-fashioned Thanksgiving.
10. "How to help the policeman."

11. Founding a library.
12. Good sportsmanship at games.
13. A "Big Brother" campaign.
14. A May Day festival.
15. Better Books.

Miss Edith Warner

The laboratory method. Until recent years it was conceded that the laboratory method belonged in science instruction alone. Of late its principles have been extended to almost every subject and problem. As carried over into other fields, a special effort has been made to eliminate the old weaknesses of the method. There have been many serious charges brought against the laboratory method, as too often followed in physics, chemistry, and biology. Experiments have been assigned in large number, from a formal manual. As the results of the "experiments" were already known to the students, they "wrote them up" in their notebooks without going to the trouble of setting up the

apparatus. Whatever the scientific results may have been, dishonesty, rather than citizenship, has often been the result in its influence on the civic life.

These objections to the method should be eliminated. The problems should appeal to the pupils as real difficulties. Those that represent mere "busy work," without reference to present-day needs and interests, are unsuitable for use. The results of the pupils' efforts should appear somewhere else than on the monthly report cards. As in the case of projects the problems should be set up by the pupils, or should be those that occur in the usual course of the school day.

Elements and characteristics. The community has often been called the civic laboratory. Two elements of the laboratory method appear in its use. The first is observation. This means that the student faithfully notes the community structure, functions, and activities. The student places the community before him as he does a leaf in the botanical laboratory. He describes it, classifies its parts, and analyzes them. Or, second, he may, when confronted with a difficulty for which he has only a tentative solution, combine certain social and civic factors into a new situation and find out whether or not the new combination works. This is the experimental feature of the method.

After the experiment is concluded, there should be a modest summary of results. The laboratory method should make a pupil cautious about making extravagant claims. It should make him honest in recording his observations, and in performing his experiments. This demands, as minimum essentials of the method: (a) the presence of a real difficulty; (b) an idea of procedure in its solution; (c) the performance of an experiment or the gathering of experience; and (d) the evaluation of results. Under this method, the teacher will work with the group as an adviser, not as a dictator.

The Dalton Laboratory Plan. The Dalton Laboratory

New York

Plan is a special illustration of the characteristics of the scientific laboratory adapted to the ordinary school subjects. For its installation, it is necessary to establish achievement standards or goals, and to measure the result of each pupil's effort. Both minimum and maximum courses of study are drawn up. At the beginning of the school year, the whole course in a given subject is presented to the pupil as a contract. He is told that he may pursue this as rapidly as he can. The year's work is subdivided into monthly allotments of twenty units each, a unit signifying a complete and independent task. The pupil assigns his own time to each subject according to the difficulties he has to meet.

The classrooms become genuine laboratories. A teacher, who is a specialist, is in charge of each subject. She is no longer concerned merely with carrying down past traditions of learning as the acceptance of facts, beliefs, and ideals. Instead, her concern is to raise questions, advise in working out solutions, and challenge every pupil to seek out the facts and think in terms of the facts. While individual work is capitalized, the pupils often get together in small groups to study and to discuss matters of general interest.

Illustrations of the laboratory method. The two distinguishing features of the laboratory method have been named as observation and experiment. Both depend in no small measure upon the process of "learning by doing." The teacher is working with the pupils throughout — supervising, counseling, directing. She knows the method used as well as the results. Examples of the laboratory method as applied to civic training are quoted from the report of a junior high school principal:

1. Our school had introduced a system of student government, but had had no need for laws and punishment. Finally a big boy from another city came to school. He was a trouble-maker from the first day. After many protests, the pupils

began to pass laws to curb his conduct. He broke them, one after one. The pupils then sent a delegation to the principal with a report on the situation. They did not want to surrender their authority, but were desirous of help. The principal told them to attend court the next day and report to the school upon what they saw there, and find out if they could get any suggestions there for handling their problem. The senior class was permitted to spend a half-day in attending a trial. On their return an assembly meeting was called, and the president reported their observations which the class verified. A student court was next installed, and the offender brought before it on a charge of "disturbing the peace." He was promptly found guilty by a jury, and sentenced to "detention" in the principal's office by the judge.

2. A very unsatisfactory system of social organization was in existence. The athletic association dominated the whole school, though less than a third of the pupils were members of it. Several times there had been attempts to start a student-body association and reorganize the student affairs, but the movement had always been defeated. Finally, as a part of the program of the principals' association, several students were appointed from our school to investigate the methods used in organizing the social activities of other schools of the State, and to recommend a new plan for all the schools of the county. The report was very well prepared, but its adoption was uncertain until one of the leaders advised the school to give it a trial. The principal and the teachers then fell into line with the idea of experimenting for a year, and the new scheme was adopted unanimously. The experiment was watched carefully, and, after a fair trial, with a few minor modifications, became the permanent plan.
3. When the school decided to organize a civic league, a large committee was appointed to draft a constitution and by-laws. The English teacher was asked to work with the committee. With the assistance of the librarian, a good list of models and books on the subject were collected together. The group was taken to the library, and with the help of the teacher worked out the constitution, section by section.

The idea is capable of indefinite extension in the field of civics. New schemes of government and social organization

may be tried out at any time. The classes may experiment with preferential voting, the city-manager plan, and the one-house legislature. The school may in this way supply a real social need, for as yet we have no special agency for conscious civic experiment. The only way we make progress is through some State or city finding courage enough to give a new plan a trial. One of the best ways to get away from old-fogyism and dependence upon worn-out tradition is to develop the experimental attitude in school. *and*

Success
1911
The seminar method. The seminar method differs from the laboratory method only in its greater emphasis upon printed materials. Experiment may be used in the solution of seminar problems. The method was first used in graduate schools. It has gradually found a way into the high schools, as pupils demonstrated their ability to get information from sources. Documents and reports, state papers, current literature, and data arrived at through the questionnaire method prove to be the chief materials.

The characteristics of the method are four in number. First, each member of the group searches out a problem. These may or may not be related to one another. Second, materials are gathered and analyzed, and an outline of a plan of work is submitted and criticized. Third, each student makes frequent reports as to his progress, to the teacher alone and to the group. At this time he is asked questions, and given suggestions for further work. The fourth feature consists of a final report. This is usually very complete, and is followed by any necessary revision only as its application brings out defects and weaknesses. The intensive work over a long period usually results in something which the student prizes, and is usually of higher quality and more enduring in its impression than the ordinary form of daily recitation. Furthermore, training is given in getting at facts for himself.

Unit tasks. A criticism often brought against present-day

teaching is to the effect that it is fragmentary and disjointed. Nothing is learned in entirety. The pupil may know a few isolated facts in language, others in mathematics, and have some slight skill in penmanship and handwork, but he is unable to combine these into the performance of complete life-tasks. If the teacher asks an eighth-grade class to make a list of the useful things they can do, she is usually struck by the poverty of attainment. The consequence is civic poverty as well. There should be some place and some method, it is argued, where certain complete and definite things can be mastered. It is in the satisfaction of the demand for "unit tasks" that the methods which have been described are recommended.

An illustration of what is meant may again be given. Assume that a class wants to organize a civic league. The instruction and practice which enables them to carry out their wishes constitutes a unit task. The preparation of a pageant would be another. Again, suppose a boy wants to advertise for a job for the coming vacation. The working out of the advertisement and its insertion in a newspaper is also a unit task. One of the fundamental principles of these individual methods is that the wise pupil seeks knowledge or skill, because he wants to put it to use. This cannot be done if some of the necessary elements are missing.

idea **Special points in technique.** The adoption of any of the preceding methods will do away with the old-time practice of merely "hearing recitations." Instead, individual and group conferences, and supervised study will be found. In general, the object will be to make everything done advance the pupils in knowledge, skill, and ideals. Exercises will be for learning, and much less emphasis will be put upon drill and test. When reading is assigned it will be in order to find something to use, or for pleasure, and not for the sake of covering a certain number of pages.

The teacher will be under the necessity at times of evaluating her own part in the use of these methods. This cannot be done, as some have asserted, merely by measuring the progress of the pupils in knowledge. Attention should also be given to the means by which the results are obtained. The price paid in health, citizenship, and character for some forms of knowledge is more than they are worth. As one of the means of checking up on her own procedure the teacher may ask such questions as the following:

1. Are the pupils originating and planning activities?
2. Do they sustain their original purposes and enthusiasm until the end?
3. Are they adept in finding materials, and in drawing conclusions?
4. Are they constantly adding to their skill and knowledge through the performance of unit tasks?
5. Are they becoming more independent in their thinking and in their work?
6. Are they interested in what is going on in the community?
7. Are they willing to go ahead and take responsibility?
8. Is there increased respect for all forms of worthy public and personal enterprise?

Summary. Independence, self-reliance, and initiative are fundamental national characteristics for life in a democracy. Many believe that the old class recitation methods make children dependent upon the teacher and the textbook. They also believe that much time is consumed in the acquisition of isolated facts and skills which are never used. As a means of removing these objections, and strengthening the pupils in independent and purposeful thought and activity, several new methods have been introduced. The project may be taken as a type. It demands purpose and initiative, careful planning, a large amount of activity, the use of objective materials, and objective results. While the usual sources of material may be gone to, the most valuable proj-

ects are those which arise out of present-day needs and problems.

EXERCISES AND PROBLEMS

1. Contrast project teaching with the conventional kinds, and show what is distinctive in it.
2. Show that the methods discussed in this chapter all illustrate the inductive type.
3. Make up a list of civic problems which might enlist the efforts of: (a) a class; (b) a civic league; and (c) an entire school.
4. A civic laboratory is described as having the following apparatus: maps, charts, bulletin board, book shelves, filing case, pictures, and table and chair for the teacher. In addition, each pupil has a table with drawers, chair, books, and writing materials. What characteristics of the laboratory method are indicated by this type of equipment?
5. What is the place of supervised-study methods in connection with the methods of teaching which have been described in this chapter?
6. Explain the effect which the new methods have upon the conventional assignment.
7. From a newspaper of current issue, pick out events or topics which might be developed into civic projects.
8. Discuss the objections to the use of artificial problems and projects — that is, those which have been prepared by the teacher, and which do not owe their origin to pupil needs.
9. What are the chief characteristics of the scientific method? Is there value in method apart from the use to which it is put? Discuss.
10. Show how the incident of the "court trial," reported by a junior high school principal, is essentially an example of the use of the laboratory method.
11. Find a list of topics which are suitable for individuals working under the seminar method.
12. Make up as complete a list of simple things every one should know as you can. Check those which have special civic applications. Which have the elements of "unit tasks"?
13. It is claimed that the pupils in schools organized on the platoon plan, and in those where there is a large program of extra-class activities, display more independence and initiative than pupils from the old-type conventional school. How do you explain this? Is there any connection between this explanation and the methods described in this chapter?

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CHAPTER XI

CIVIC TRAINING THROUGH THE USE OF SOCIAL METHODS

The meaning of socialization. Socialization is the process by which individuals adjust themselves to one another and learn to accept social ideals and institutions. The strength of a nation is measured by the unity of its people, as well as by their number. Unity itself is conditioned by likenesses among the population. People who are alike in essential particulars may be said to be unified or homogeneous. If we trusted to chance experiences there would be little "likeness" in our people, since the chance experiences would, except in few cases, be very different. The standard teaching courses which are planned for our schools are intended to supply a uniform body of facts and experiences which will tend to make for resemblances among our people.

Not only must there be practice in doing the same thing, but the practice must take place in such a way and at such a time that the efforts of one reinforce and supplement the efforts of others. To this act of working together the name coöperation is given. It is both an object and a means. We work together because by this means we can obtain many things we would otherwise have to do without. Out of this working together we also get skill which makes us more efficient in future coöperative effort.

The basis of socialization. This improved efficiency is the real basis of socialization. Almost all the contributions of man to civilization result from joint endeavor, or from the desire to give pleasure and satisfaction to others, or from both. It has been demonstrated that pupils will do more and

better work when working with others than when working alone. Not only are they more efficient, but they also find greater pleasure in the work.

These facts have caused some to believe that there are certain inherent social tendencies. These are described as gregariousness, or satisfaction in the society of others; sympathy, or satisfaction in feeling as others feel; approbation or satisfaction in having the approval of others; and altruism, or satisfaction in working with others for a common purpose and for the common good. Although the instinctive nature of these traits is now rejected, there has been no decrease in the appreciation of their social value. If they are not instinctive they must be implanted and nourished. At the same time, traits that are opposed or anti-social must be prevented from growing. Socialization, then, has its basis in the need for group efficiency, and in individual satisfaction in the process.

unified
The unified group. If the working efficiency of a group is dependent upon its homogeneity, the more alike pupils are in the beginning the less the teacher's task and the more profitable the returns. At one time it was thought that chronological age was the best index to homogeneity. Others have held that physiological age, by which is meant the stage of physical maturity, is the best guide to general likeness. The best modern practice is to group children of the same psychological age (mental age) together. Not only does it seem that classes of the same mental age make greater progress, but they find greater pleasure in working together.

Assuming a class of thirty pupils of approximately the same mental age, the teacher still has the task of organizing smaller groups for special projects. Assuming again that six pupils are wanted in each permanent group, let each pupil write the names of five pupils with whom he prefers to

work. While there will be some overlapping, and it may occasionally be necessary to have second choices indicated, usually each group will work better together than they would have had they been placed by chance. Where only one group is wanted, as for a committee, the pupils may elect a leader by popular vote. The leader chooses one pupil to help, and this pupil chooses another. The method is continued until the requisite number is made up.

Types of social organization. Two distinct types of social organization have a place in the school. The first, the class and its related clubs and activities, has knowledge and skills in curricular subjects as its objective. The second, is the extra-class clubs and organizations, with their varied offerings for association and coöperation. As specific reference has already been given to the latter in the chapter on social organization, and, incidentally, in many other sections, the chief subject of attention in this chapter will be the class.

The mention of one fact of significance, in connection with the second type, should, however, not be omitted. On taking charge of a school or class that has been accustomed to the old formality, with the teacher in the rôle of task-master and inquisitor, social methods may be more easily initiated through extra-class activities than through the recitation. In the first case, there is simply the duty of getting started right. The novelty of student clubs, the pleasure in participation, and the interest in managing affairs of their own make the beginning easy. In the classes, on the other hand, the pupils have become habituated to certain forms of recitation routine and do not accept the changed program so readily, in spite of its promise.

The beginning of class socialization. Nevertheless, the teacher must in time approach the problem of carrying over the methods of the outside organizations into the class. One of the best ways to begin is to find out what the pupils

would enjoy doing. In the civics class, or in the geography class, for example, the teacher may say "In this class you may work for a week at anything worth while that you want to do, so long as you produce results. You may work with others or work by yourself."

A few pupils will usually be found who respond to the suggestion. To those that do not, the teacher may point out small projects, and may even form small groups to work together. As difficulties are met with in the work the teacher may nominate helpers, or direct the group to apply to a certain member of the class for assistance. Some teachers designate a helper for each group, or has each group elect one. It is the duty of the helper to prepare himself thoroughly on the problem, but usually he does not give relief until it is called for. When work is being done before the class, or in discussion periods, it should be understood that any one may volunteer help.

The second feature of prominence in socialized procedure is division of labor. The pupils will soon perceive that it is wasteful of time for all to work at the same time on the whole problem. They find they can complete the task more quickly and do better work if each takes some particular phase of it. If an even division is hard to make, two or three may work on the more difficult parts. So far as possible, free choice should determine what each shall do. In case of a conflict of choices, or inability to agree, the time-honored device of drawing lots should be resorted to.

Formal organization. The social method cannot be carried very far until the need of formal organization will be recognized. Leadership and direction become essential. It is then time for the teacher to suggest that the class organize by the election of officers, the adoption of any needed rules and regulations, and the appointment of committees. As many smaller groups may be organized as are deemed

necessary. Each minor group should also elect a leader. It is his function to speak for his group, assign work, and keep a record of what each of his associates contributes. This record is used by the teacher as a basis for grading.

The organization should be kept as simple as possible. A president, a secretary, and a librarian are all the officers needed. The president may appoint a chairman each day to preside during the discussion of the recitation topic. The secretary keeps a record of attendance, notes the contribution of each pupil to the general class exercises, and attends to any necessary correspondence and reporting. The librarian is the general helper to all, has charge of all books and materials, and may be largely instrumental in building up the room equipment.

Instead of using the type of organization which has just been described, the students may prefer to organize in imitation of outside organizations. They may copy the form of cabinets, parliaments, legislatures, or congresses. A half year at most is a sufficient time to continue any one of these forms. The idea back of the imitation is to give knowledge of the particular organization or institution. When this object has been achieved, the class should pass on to another.

Control. One of the values of the social method lies in the development of group control. Only until the novelty of the method wears off, the teacher may expect that her room will be more noisy and there will be absent the appearance of system and order to which she has been accustomed. As opportunity offers, the teacher should instruct the pupils in proper decorum and self-control. She should talk frankly with them in regard to what is being undertaken, and tell them that regard for others finally means greater liberty for themselves. If there are any pupils who fail to heed her suggestions, there are two courses open to her. She may reassert her individual authority, or she may put the matter

before the class and invite group action. The first may at times be necessary. The second, however, is in line with the socialized method.

A pupil is sometimes found who refuses to coöperate with the others in his group, and is noisy, rude, and idle. If his own leader and fellows are unsuccessful, it is often wise to deny him group privileges for a short time. He is required to work alone, and the other pupils neither accept his assistance nor give him aid. This punishment should not be pushed to the extreme of ostracism, nor should it be long continued. At the suggestion of the teacher, the leader may invite him to join his old group, or he may be transferred to a new one. Unless he has already had a number of transfers, he will be given a new chance immediately instead of being ruled out of the group.

Class activities. The class may be expected to busy itself with the usual course of study. Such departures as are made are due to the wishes of the pupils. An outline of the proposed work of the term may be put on the board, but is not to be followed blindly nor against the will of the groups. A class committee may help plan the general program. The smaller groups may submit projects and plans which they wish to follow. A space may be left on the bulletin board where any new ideas may be posted. Pupils who show ability and interest in bringing in supplementary materials should be commended.

When the whole class is occupied with a matter of common interest, it will present the situation that prevails in the public forum. The chairman will be seated at the desk in the front of the classroom. The problem of the day will be briefly outlined. Pupils will be recognized in turn, and, without taking more than their share of the time, will make their contribution. Courtesy, without undue formality, should be insisted upon. After the pupils learn that they

should try to get at the facts and merits of a proposition, the teacher need not concern herself long about the "bluffer." His decreasing influence upon group conduct will soon make him understand the importance of basing his proposals upon knowledge.

The activities of the pupils must be directed towards their fellows. They read, ask questions, make suggestions, and invite assistance all with regard to the group. The teacher makes herself a member of the group. She should not try to dominate it. Her main purpose should be to keep the pupils engaged in educational activities, and to guide them so that their efforts are successful.

The social method illustrated. Space is not available to give complete examples of the socialized recitation. An examination of the stenographic reports of these exercises reveals their infinite variety. What is said depends upon the class, the problem under consideration, and the especial object in view. The illustrations which have been chosen summarize some of the leading characteristics of the method, and are especially designed to point out principles of organization and control:

1. The purpose of this eighth-grade social project was to secure the active coöperation of the group in furnishing practical data from home and vocational experience.

The equipment comprised a system of currency, building materials, a library, work benches and tools, sewing machines and other household equipment, and the ordinary school desks and chairs.

The class was organized with each pupil holding some office. The members agreed that by means of the organization they would develop responsibility, and the time of the teacher would be set free to help as needed. A forum served to bring out the type of officers required. The next question was "What students have shown those qualifications?"

The class next was led to determine the average ability of its members to perform routine work in arithmetic. The test

was limited to such calculations and exercises as are extensively used. A given number of problems was then assigned, to be worked within a limited time. The average number of problems solved was then calculated, and an average salary fixed to correspond with the average salaries paid in the vocations where such problems were used. The pupils were then paid in school currency for every problem worked. Those who worked the average number received the average salary. Those who worked more and less were paid in proportion. Likewise, every other routine subject was evaluated and paid for. The earning capacity of each pupil was computed, and the money earned was used as a working capital towards building a home.

Home sites were next investigated. Sections of the community were apportioned to different committees, who reported their findings to the class. Real estate men, city officials, and others were consulted as they came within the acquaintance of the pupils. The pupils decided to explain their purpose fully before asking questions, and to take into consideration the demands which business made upon the time of these men. Any statements were verified before they were accepted, and excursions into the community were frequent.

Each pupil next drew and submitted plans for a house, suited to one of his earning capacity. The plans were examined and criticized by the class. At this point an inquiry was made into the vocation of the architect. Information concerning the native qualities required, his earning power, and the training required was put at the command of the pupils showing the most ability. Some investigation was made as to types of architecture in former ages.

Those who had sufficient skill built their houses. Others studied the wages of carpenters, advantages in division of labor, and related economic questions.

The amount of lumber needed for each house plan was calculated. Actual prices were obtained from the local dealers, and the cost of materials used was computed.

Several days were given to the study of lumbering. The topics included the location of the forests, the methods of taking out of the woods, the mills, and the marketing. The various vocations connected with lumbering were examined.

The study of lumbering brought up the necessity of the conservation of forests. Different groups brought in data on national parks, forest reserves, the forest service, and methods of reforestation.

Other materials for housekeeping were given a similar treatment, as they were brought up in connection with the construction and furnishing of the house.

The building of houses furnished a business for the pupils who had the proper qualifications and interests. Some with less skill found employment as helpers. The pupils who were unable to build houses for themselves gained the idea that they too would need a vocation in order to be able to hire others to build houses for them.

Connections were made with bookkeeping and accounting. The financing of building necessitated the establishment of a bank.

The leading part taken by the girls was in the furnishing of the houses. Living expenses and budgets were studied. A correlation with art and home economics was made.

Throughout the project, the following features were kept to the front: (1) the social objective of all effort; (2) social materials; (3) use of the best community practices; (4) coöperation; (5) helping; and (6) social compensation.

2. Several high school boys were really in need of re-socialization. Some of them had failed repeatedly. They were the reputed centers of almost all school disturbances. Some of the teachers refused to permit them to enter their classes. They laughed at school authority. The parents had little or no control over them. Several had been in trouble with the town authorities.

The ages represented were from fourteen to twenty-two. Most of the boys were frequenters of the pool rooms and other loafing places. They read sensational books and patronized the movies regularly.

An experiment in re-socialization was begun, at the suggestion of a graduate student in a near-by university. The boys were assigned to a class in "current problems." At the first meeting, the instructor faced the situation frankly. The boys were told that they would be expected to take the responsibility for the conduct of the class. The instructor would give such help and advice as he could, but the chief

duty for keeping order, finding problems and materials to work with, and measuring results lay with them.

Four groups were organized by the free-choice method, and leaders elected. They commenced to select their projects. There was considerable rowdiness the first few days, but the instructor paid little attention to it. In conferences with the leaders he explained that they had the duty of discipline on their own shoulders. Thereafter, the leaders called some of the worst offenders to account.

The problems revealed something of the interests of the pupils. They chiefly dealt with community shortcomings: violations of the prohibition law, gambling, and questionable movies. The leader reported the progress made by his group each week, and estimated a grade for each pupil.

As the work went forward, outsiders were invited to come in and talk over some special problems with the group. The chief of police, the head of the law and order league, and the chairman of the committee on movie censorship were among those who accepted the invitation.

In one group, only the leader was active. The others refused to make any effort. One pupil in particular was a disturbing factor. In order to force the group to action the instructor told the members that no credit would be given to one unless all deserved credit. While this impressed the boys as unfair, the announcement had the expected effect. The leading disturber was dismissed from the group — the equivalent of being dismissed from school, since he had already forfeited all other chances.

The experiment was of too short duration to justify any conclusions. On the whole, the effects were good. Extended over a longer period of time, it would probably have resulted in restoring most of the boys to right relations with society.

3. A history class organized a Federal Congress. Membership was by election. A "government" printer was appointed to publish the bills introduced by the congressmen. These were drawn up according to the forms found in the Congressional Record. The proceedings in Congress were faithfully followed, similar bills were drawn up and debated, and a journal kept. This organization lasted through the entire session of the Federal Congress.
4. The class in hygiene in the seventh grade organized as a board

of health. Regulations of the state board were studied and discussed. Special problems taken up included the enforcement of quarantine, insect carriers of disease, school sanitation, and pure foods. This class put on a health play before the assembly, directed the annual clean-up campaign for the school, and were leaders in the "Health Parade" which marked the beginning of health week.

Measuring results. In testing results where the social method is used the teacher should try to parallel community conditions. We find that people are engaged in coöperative enterprises. They maintain a school system, operate street cars, furnish water and electricity, and carry on a city-manager form of government. At certain times the community wants to know how efficient and adequate their work is. There are several ways for them to get the desired information. They may appoint a committee of their own community to obtain it. A state commission may be called upon to do the work. Still a third method is to call in a competent outside committee or person to conduct the inquiry.

Classes also need to know whether the methods they are using are good, and whether the results they are getting are satisfactory. They should be led to request the teacher to make an examination of their work at certain times. Her survey should be impartial and just. For data she will be forced to rely upon the records kept by the class secretary, the reports of the group leaders, an examination of whatever concrete materials the pupils have produced, and her own observations. Naturally, these sources may be considerably strengthened by data derived from any special tests the teacher may care to give.

The findings of the survey should be made known to the pupils. The class and the minor groups should be rated as well as the individual pupils. In every instance, the grades

should be accompanied by constructive suggestions for improvement. Have the pupils make charts on which the results of each successive class and group survey may be placed. These graphs should be posted on the bulletin board. The group marks may well be composed of ratings on promptness in getting to work, persistence, order, and accomplishment. Credit should also be given for outside activities of the class or of any minor group.

Advantages and disadvantages in the social method. The social method does not meet with the approval of supervisors accustomed to the old-time regimen of teacher autocracy. Anarchy also is a probable result of the attempts of a weak teacher to put her class on a social basis. It is also true that in a group of unequal abilities, unless the helpers are faithful to their duty, the poorer pupils do not make much progress. The teacher may sometimes be deceived by the bustle and enthusiasm of group activity into crediting pupils with interest in the results which are either feigned or belong only to the process. Still another disadvantage is remarked in the fact that in some classes the more arbitrary and less intelligent control by a pupil is often substituted for that of the teacher. These, it may be remarked, are not disadvantages that belong to the social method alone.

The exponents of the social method advance strong claims in its defense. They maintain that it is the most successful way of providing practice in working together, and that it is the method most satisfying to the pupils. From the point of view of giving formal knowledge the method excels the usual formal recitation. The pupils are actively occupied with vital matters all day long. They explore many sources, they learn habits of constructive criticism, they become proficient in expression and application. The sense of responsibility for others, coupled with the large element of self-control, make the method an effective one in

character development. The fundamental aim is fully in accord with the modern ideal in education — the development of a more efficient democracy.

Principles of social method. More thorough investigation and wider experience with the method is needed before conclusive principles can be stated. Much of the generalizing which has been done has been based upon the desirable instead of upon the attainable. Nevertheless, it is believed that the following will be of some help in guiding teachers in the introduction and use of a most promising method:

1. Success in group effort is dependent upon leadership. Consistent training in this function should accompany any use of the method.
2. Greater ease in management and direction will be found if the membership of a group is homogeneous.
3. The teacher's part consists in suggesting topics, ways of coöperating, stimulating enthusiasm, and evaluating methods and results.
4. The way for hearty, sincere group work must be opened up slowly and gradually.
5. The responsibility for control should be lodged with the group.
6. The organization should be simple, and should never be an aim in itself.
7. The greatest success will be realized when compulsion and repression are entirely removed.
8. The teacher should evaluate results at the request of the group, and should report on both individual and class methods and accomplishments.

Summary. The social method marks an effort to introduce into the schools the experiences that are most vital in society. Its objective is to satisfy the essential social needs of the pupils and the community. Knowledge of social affairs and practice in performing social duties should distinguish the activities of the class. Pupil organization is necessary. It may be in imitation of the usual political types, or it may be of a special type adapted to the existing

need. The activities are largely planned by the pupils, and the forum furnishes an excellent example of a device to follow. The teacher remains as a member of the group, and shares in its responsibilities and its efforts. She should be very tactful in keeping the pupils working harmoniously together. While it is not maintained that there are no weaknesses in the social method, the advantages appear to outweigh the disadvantages.

EXERCISES AND PROBLEMS

1. What relation, if any, exists between the socialized method and the project method? Can one socialize class activities without the use of a project?
2. Provide through dramatization, or otherwise, an insight into the character and importance of coöperation in pioneer days.
3. Develop a socialized project around the ideal of "being a good neighbor."
4. Show how the Constitution of the United States might be taught through the social method.
5. Why is it said that unity and the capacity to coöperate are conditioned by the homogeneity of the group?
6. One of the activities of a sixth-grade reading class was to send some of its members, every Friday afternoon, to the orthopedic hospital to read to the children. Could this be called an example of the social method? Explain.
7. The best way to introduce social methods is through the use of proper appreciation-exercises, such as assemblies, singing, cheering, etc. Is there any way in which this principle may be applied to class subjects? Would the concert recitation be an illustration?
8. Over three hundred social and fraternal organizations may be found in a Western city of about thirty-five thousand people. How may a fact like this be used to impress pupils with the importance of socialization?
9. Suppose that a group, otherwise efficient, tolerated the acts of an unruly and mischievous boy. You suggest to the leader that the group take action in the case, but nothing is done. How would you go about the solution of the problem?
10. Some schools report that they have one room which is designated as "the free choice room." By deserving effort pupils may earn the privilege of going to this room and working at anything they please. What social implications are found in this scheme?

11. Discuss the value of the method of using helpers in developing a sense of responsibility.
12. Some teachers believe that the first step in socializing a class is to get rid of all the old formal school desks and equipment, and to replace them with easy chairs, tables, and other furniture, as found in the best homes. How much merit is there in this position? Discuss.

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CHAPTER XII

CIVIC TRAINING THROUGH PERSONAL GUIDANCE

The need for guidance. The teacher's duties are not confined to classroom instruction alone. There is another type of civic opportunity which has been well developed in recent years. It depends less upon mastery of technique for its success than it does upon the personal qualities of insight into individual needs and aspirations, sympathy, and ability to see the other fellow's point of view. The opportunities to guide and direct child conduct by suggestion, inspiration, advice, and assignment are innumerable, and the influence of such help in making boys and girls useful and happy members of society is immeasurable. Successful men and women testify almost without exception that the crucial decisions of their lives have often been shaped by the wise teacher. The discussion in this chapter is limited to only three significant problems: (1) educational guidance; (2) vocational guidance; and (3) avocational guidance. These are the three most important channels for personal influence open to the teacher.

The need of guidance and direction is felt by every one. We like to know there is some one with whom we can counsel and advise. We like to have some one with whom we can discuss confidentially the many problems which vex us. A wise and consistent plan may be found effective along the following lines:

1. In moments when important life decisions must be made, the greater knowledge and experience, and the sounder judgment of the teacher, may prevent many mistakes.
2. In the discovery of the needs and capacities of the individual,

with a view to improving his weaknesses, and of giving him that work for which he is best fitted.

3. In counteracting selfish and ignorant advice and counsel.
4. In helping pupils to develop attitudes of mind towards employers, fellow workers, and the community that make for good citizenship.
5. In helping pupils to see and assume their civic responsibilities in respect to work and to the use of leisure.
6. In the motivation of education. One of the main reasons why pupils drop out of school is because school does not point to a career.

New South Wales

The organization of guidance. The ideal organization is to have every teacher a counselor. In the grade school, pupils should naturally turn to their classroom teacher. Where departmentalization prevails, the pupils may be divided into groups of twenty to thirty, and a teacher may be assigned as an adviser to each group. The continuance of the same adviser for a group throughout their school career is advisable, wherever it is practicable. The effectiveness of the teacher counselors may be greatly increased if they have the assistance of an expert in guidance for the building, or for the school system.

Two methods may be followed by the counselor in guiding pupils. First, is the individual conference; second, the group conference. These direct methods may be supplemented by indirect guidance through the regular school subjects and activities. The group method will oftenest be used in relation to the planning of club activities. It will seldom deal with more than typical group concerns. The individual conference, on the other hand, will deal with the more intimate concerns of the individual.

It would be well if the teacher might have some time set aside on her schedule for personal conferences with pupils. Lacking this, her recourse must of necessity be to intermissions and after-school time as she can find it. She should

plan to meet with every pupil in her group at least twice a semester. The obvious excuse of getting acquainted, or of getting the pupil's point of view concerning some school policy, is sufficient. The conversation may easily be turned towards the pupil's aim in life, ways of spending leisure time, accomplishments, and special interests.

Guidance demands something more than the giving of advice. On the one hand, it may mean the substitution of a beneficial activity for a harmful. As an example, we have the case of the teacher who interested a boy who had been spending his after-school hours in gambling and stealing to take up Scout work. After the confidence of the pupils is gained, it may mean a frank discussion of certain shortcomings in the pupil's character and conduct, with suggestions for improvement. In general, advice unasked for is seldom acted upon, yet if the teacher have a firm hold upon the pupil's affection, gratitude, and respect, he may on her request do or refrain from doing something to which he has little other inclination.

Rules for guidance. There are a few rules for the work of guidance which the teacher should faithfully follow:

First, the teacher should establish friendly relations with her pupils. The teacher who is cold, indifferent, unsympathetic, distrustful, and fault-finding will never be taken into the confidence of children. She must by all means feel a real personal interest in their welfare, and a responsibility for their behavior, in school and out.

Second, the teacher's relationships with the pupils should be supplemented by friendliness with the parents. She should early learn what their hopes and ambitions for the children are, and, furthermore, what limitations to their realization are imposed by home and neighborhood conditions.

The third rule is no less important. The teacher should

keep awake to what is going on in the community and the world. The pupils should feel that she speaks out of the knowledge of life to-day. Young people are not likely to follow the advice of people whom they think are out of date.

Fourth and last, all effort and all progress in the direction suggested by the teacher should be recognized, and a just amount of praise bestowed for it. If teachers have the confidence of the children and the parents, if they have the factual basis for wise direction, and if they are quick to give credit when credit is due, then they can influence pupils about as they please.

Educational guidance. The first type of guidance which the teacher is called upon to give concerns the school itself. What subjects shall the pupil pursue? If a college education is indicated for him, what institution shall he select? If he enters a vocation, what agencies and means are available to enable him to continue his education? These are the main questions which he will need help in answering.

The principles to follow in recommending subjects are almost identical with those which determine curricular materials in the first place. There are three principal criteria. First, recommend courses that prepare for the needs of life. Second, recommend courses that are within the limits of the pupil's abilities. Third, encourage him to take up those subjects in which he seems to have a special interest.

In carrying out the first principle, keep in mind the needs of the present as well as the needs of the future. On the second point, it is known that only the most intelligent can handle the abstract subjects. The third point is not so important. Those that are superior intellectually can do good work in almost any subject. Professed interest in a subject by one below the average in intelligence is not always an index to ability in it. However, both groups will have to do

some work for which they have no great liking; where guidance may serve its purpose is to get them to accept this fact cheerfully.

Chapter
College guidance. College guidance consists in stimulating pupils to inform themselves about higher education, and to become interested in a college career. It will apply to only a relatively small proportion. When college is the aim, courses in high school should be mapped out which will satisfy reasonable entrance requirements. There should be a college guidance committee within every high school. Its function should be to collect facts about higher schools, and to make them accessible to the pupils through the bulletin board, assembly, and library. Subjects such as the following may be taken up in conferences with individuals, and in classes in composition and civics:

1. College entrance and graduation requirements.
2. What it costs to go to college.
3. Vocations which demand a college education.
4. College student life.
5. Self-support while going to college.
6. How colleges take care of the students' health.
7. Great American universities.
8. A college education and success in life.

Continuation schools. Most pupils go directly from school into vocations. Many are forced by necessity to leave school, others leave by choice. The first group will welcome suggestions that will permit them to continue their education. Many of the other group will find the need of further school training after they begin work. Most will want practical help in their vocations. A few will want to study for general culture.

The night school offers the best opportunities for continuation education. The principal of the school should be invited to address the students upon the courses given, and

announcements and schedules should be posted on the bulletin boards. The teacher may wish to take her class to visit the night school. If there is none in the community, a committee of pupils from the civics class should investigate its need. Continuation school guidance should be given, beginning not later than the seventh grade, to every pupil in the school.

Universities furnish another type of continuation work through their extension departments. Classes are opened in many of the larger cities in both academic and professional subjects. Pupils will be benefited mainly, however, in learning of the correspondence-study courses which the department offers. The advantages in these courses lie in the fact that they may be taken up at any time, carry personal instruction, may be studied during leisure moments, and are usually very reasonable in cost. The discussion of the subject, too, gives an opportunity to caution the pupils against buying courses from irresponsible commercial correspondence schools.

A movement of considerable promise is represented in the reading circle work of the United States Bureau of Education. A wide variety of courses is outlined, each requiring from one to five years for completion. In many States, arrangements have been made whereby the public libraries lend the books to the readers. When a book is completed, a brief written review is submitted to the Bureau or to its representative. The service is entirely free. In promoting such courses in a community the teacher is doing educational work of a high order, and is both directly and indirectly furthering the cause of good citizenship.

Vocational guidance. Educational guidance is only a preliminary to vocational guidance. Most life activities center around work. The wisdom with which a vocation is chosen and the energy and honesty with which it is pursued

becomes a matter of great civic importance. A vocation is nothing less than a type of social service. Yet it is stated, upon good authority, that seventy-five per cent of our public school pupils enter upon the vocations unprepared. Only a small number find themselves in occupations to which they are best adapted. The consequence is often discontent, failure, and even vice and crime.

The belief is that some of the wastage of the hit-and-miss method might be spared by education. Through courses, practical trial, and personal discussion, many matters of vital civic importance may be brought home to the pupils. This should have an application to the following points:

1. A mastery of knowledge sufficient to give one a basis in choosing a career.
2. An acquaintance with methods and sources through which this knowledge may be greatly extended.
3. A decrease in elimination and retardation.
4. A proper respect for and an appreciation of all honest labor.
5. A "life of service" ideal.

Guidance methods. In the large modern school there will be abundant chance to direct pupils into vocations, and to train them effectively for a life career. The teacher working alone or practically so will have to rely upon courses in occupations and related subjects, upon lectures and excursions, and often very largely upon her own resources. There is much that may be done, however, with very limited facilities.

There are now available a number of good books on occupations. They may be made a part of courses in geography or civics, or be introduced in a separate course. The purpose of these courses is not to turn pupils into specific vocations, but to furnish them with such information as will help them to make an intelligent choice when the time for decision arrives. Books on vocational guidance, life-career studies, lives of successful men and women, and trade and industrial

magazines may be used as supplementary material. The United States Bureau of Labor publishes a series of booklets called *Descriptions of Occupations* which are very useful. The Federal Board of Vocational Education has several similar publications.

The industrial survey. A local survey of industries will prove very useful for guidance purposes. The working out of a survey will be a good project for the class in civics. It may be made a part of the "community book," referred to in a previous chapter. The importance of the study lies both in the information which it contains and in the first-hand acquaintance with industrial plants which must be visited to obtain the data. It is an undeniable fact that most of the pupils will enter local occupations. Their choice is then limited to those within easy reach. These should be known in considerable detail.

The task of making the survey should be divided among the pupils so that no one has a heavy burden. Each might well take a single industry. Points to be investigated would include such as the following:

1. Requirements for the positions — age, training, personal qualities, and experience.
2. Pay — the largest and smallest wages, how often payment is made, payment for overtime, and bonuses.
3. Hours — length of day, day or night work, rest periods.
4. Conditions affecting safety and health.
5. The opportunities for advancement.
6. How to get the position.

As a part of the survey, the teacher should find out what occupations the pupils are considering. To do this have each pupil list from three to five vocations in the order of their preference. Then compare the percentage choosing each occupational class with the figures given below. The results from such investigations usually show that a percent-

age far too large is considering the professions. In other lines, it may also be found, that the local demand is far lower than the possible future supply. The mere display of such figures may convince many that they should choose vocations more in line with their abilities and with future opportunities.

The following table from the Boise Survey is illustrative:

THE PERCENTAGE OF PEOPLE ENGAGED IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS
COMPARED WITH THE OCCUPATIONAL PREFERENCES OF HIGH-
SCHOOL STUDENTS

OCCUPATIONAL CLASSES	UNITED STATES	LOCAL COMMUNITY	FATHERS OF PUPILS	HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS
Agriculture.....	33.2	17.2	25.2	6.7
Mining	2.5	1.5	1.1	0.0
Manufacturing..	27.9	28.0	23.3	5.0
Transportation..	6.9	3.9	3.3	0.3
Commercial.....	14.1	23.6	24.4	23.6
Public service...	1.2	4.5	4.2	0.8
Professional.....	4.4	10.1	11.4	48.8
Domestic service.	9.9	1.1	0.3	0.0
Miscellaneous...			0.8	1.3
Not given.....			6.0	15.5

Guidance through lectures. A common method of dispensing vocational information is through lectures. Members of the community are invited into the school to tell students about their respective vocations. Great care should be exercised to get speakers who will give a clear and truthful picture. In framing the invitation a tactful reference may be made to the topics which it is hoped the speaker will discuss, and to the time to be consumed. The pupils will care particularly to know the importance of the work, the training required, the opportunities for advancement, and the returns both in money and in satisfaction. A few minutes should always be reserved for questions. The success

of this type of instruction will depend upon the personality of the speaker. Those that cannot "put it over" should not be invited.

Oftentimes competent speakers can be obtained to talk on a different but related type of vocational subject. These deal in particular with the special opportunities for patriotic service through vocations. To illustrate, consider the following:

1. Why should a professional or business man be interested in: (a) public playgrounds; (b) the Civic League; (c) the prevention of child labor; or (d) factory inspection?
2. How the city government benefits me (a lawyer, a physician, etc.).
3. Special qualities required for business success.
4. Business ethics.
5. Leadership in the vocations.

The teacher should also protect the pupils against the quack vocational guides, and the so-called character-reading experts. These at times visit schools and solicit the privilege of speaking before the pupils. The rule should be to extend the courtesy of the lecture hall only to reputable and invited persons. The teacher would do well, if necessary, to invite the coöperation of the churches, civic leagues, and commercial associations in the protection of the children from the self-styled guidance expert. Out of her own knowledge of the pupils, the experienced teacher can give a more accurate estimate of their characters than the most skillful of these "authorities."

The excursion. Visits to places of industry are valuable means of interesting pupils in occupations. The teacher should make preparation by visiting the plant or business several days in advance. Tell the pupils in advance what they will be expected to observe. Reading assignments on the industry may also be combined with the excursion.

Following the visit, have the pupils summarize their impressions. In later discussions correct any false impressions.

Occasionally a single member of the guidance group may be sent to inspect an industry. The class discusses in advance the contemplated trip, and indicates along what lines they want information. On his return he reports to the group. Whenever any member of the class has stated a definite vocational preference he should be given frequent opportunities to make observations and to add to his knowledge. He should thoroughly understand that, simply because he has expressed a preference for a vocation, he is not committed to it irrevocably. He should feel free to revise his choice in the light of new information and new interests.

Using other subjects. The teacher should emphasize the vocational values in many of the common subjects. Spelling is one of the very best forms of vocational training. Writing, language, and arithmetic are no less important. Pupils seldom realize the vocational significance of these subjects until they enter business college or apply for a position. Employers do not as a rule ask questions about the general education of applicants. They do ask whether they are neat, accurate, and rapid in arithmetic; whether they write legibly, and whether they use correct English. All of these subjects should be taught from the point of view of giving vocational skill.

Many courses in vocations are correlated with English. A shelf may be set aside in the room or in the library under the heading "Choosing a Life Work." Books on vocations may be put on the reading list in the English classes. A library may be made up by the pupils. Clippings from magazines and newspapers which bear on the subject should be collected. Post pictures of successful people, with a short sketch of their lives and service. Quotations relating to work may be gathered and memorized, and may be posted

on the bulletin board. Bring in former students to tell of their experiences. Assign topics, such as the following, for report and discussion:

1. The work of the printer *versus* the work of the carpenter.
2. Occupations for women (any one may be chosen).
3. Advantages in the apprentice system.
4. What to do during vacation.
5. Why choose a vocation early.
6. Civic obligations of the business man, or of the professional man.
7. Should the business man or professional man sacrifice his time and energy to take public office at little or no pay?
8. How to avoid "blind-alley" jobs.
9. The chief causes of failure.
10. How can I prepare myself for my vocation?
11. Good English as a business asset.
12. Dress for the business woman.
13. Why the business man should be interested in the public schools.
14. The good and bad points in following my father's occupation.
15. Should a boy who is raised on a farm become a farmer?

Personal work of the teacher. There are several occasions which furnish a reason for the teacher to call the pupil into conference on vocational matters. New pupils should be interviewed on entering school. On the opening of a new school year, the teacher may inquire as to changes in plans from the preceding. Vocational experience in the vacation period is a good topic for discussion. In addition, the teacher may make opportunities. One very successful method is to have pupils rate themselves on personal qualities, and afterwards talk over the results with each. The qualities and rating scheme given below may be used.

Another method consists in having pupils dramatize "getting a job" before the class. Pupils take turns as applicants and employers. In later conferences the teacher may give hints concerning dress, cleanliness, manners, and

PERSONAL RATING CARD

Rate yourself on the points below. Ten means the very highest, and one means the very lowest. The other numbers stand for points between in order. Be as careful as you can be.

	EXCELLENT			GOOD		FAIR		POOR		
	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Honesty.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Being on time.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Industry.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Cheerfulness.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Unselfishness.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Working with others.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Perseverance.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Truthfulness.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Ability to get things done	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Public spirit.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

attitudes, if impersonal discussion has not already made these unnecessary. This exercise may be combined with the writing of "Help Wanted" advertisements, and the writing of applications in answer.

Vocational ideals. One result of the personal effort of the teacher should be the inculcation of high ideals concerning vocations. These should be developed in every phase of school activity, and are indispensable to real success in any line of endeavor. To illustrate:

1. The ideal of quality. Pupils should be ashamed to acknowledge a piece of work as their own until they have done their best.
2. The ideal of industry. The shirker never succeeds. Instead of doing "just enough to get by," the pupils should be taught to put more into a task than they are paid for.
3. The ideal of interest. Whatever is done should command all the attention and the ability of the worker. The "clock-watcher" never makes progress.

4. The ideal of responsibility. This is opposed to the "don't care" attitude. To be dependable, to take the lead, and to be loyal is to be responsible.
5. The ideal of learning. The worker should not be content with what he knows. He should continually be adding to his skill and his knowledge. As he extends his knowledge from operation to operation, and from department to department, he becomes qualified for promotion.
6. The ideal of enthusiasm. The successful man looks to the future with confidence. He has faith in his associates and faith in himself. He does not complain; he keeps on in the face of difficulties.

Avocational guidance. Nearly everything that has been said about vocations applies equally well to avocations. The teacher should discover any special talent among her pupils. Make up a list of the chief avocations, such as music, painting, plays, gardening, nature study, radio, shells, games, stamps, etc., and ask the pupils to check the ones they are most interested in. Encourage hobbies. Make inquiry of the parents concerning any special talent or interests they have noticed in their children.

Special organizations are also a successful device to use in bringing talents to light and in fostering their growth. Accomplishments thrive best in an atmosphere of friendly and happy group approval. The school should run the whole gamut of avocational interests each year, through nature, art, music, history, science, literary, and dramatic clubs. It is far easier for the school to furnish practice and experience in avocations than in vocations. It is worth while, too, to show that ambitious young people, who find themselves in uncongenial employment, may turn to an avocation as a way out. Another value is found in the emphasis which may be put upon the right use of leisure. Get a schedule of the pupils' waking hours. Advise them how a better use of the day may be made without subtracting from their happi-

ness. Induce willingness to accept the suggestions by having reports given on how great men and women have capitalized their leisure. Avocational guidance is an almost wholly unoccupied field. Society is dependent upon the voluntary efforts of interested teachers for results.

Summary. The teacher's greatest influence on the lives of her pupils is found often in giving personal guidance. There are three special fields where guidance is necessary — in planning the school career, in the consideration of a vocation, and in selecting avocational pursuits. The course followed by the pupil will determine his success in life, and consequently his civic usefulness. Successful guidance demands that the teacher have the respect and good will of the pupils. Her suggestions should be given in a friendly manner, and should be actuated by a genuine interest in the pupil's welfare. In all cases, she should be in command of as many facts as possible concerning the pupil and the situation under consideration. The teacher who awakens a desire for an honorable and useful career in a child, who plants the seeds of ambition, and who holds forth the hope of something noble and serviceable to humanity, helps and protects the individual and the State.

EXERCISES AND PROBLEMS

1. Devise a plan by which you could acquaint upper-grade pupils with the vocational opportunities in public service.
2. Draw up a list of questions which you could use in ascertaining the vocations in which your pupils are interested.
3. In a form entitled "A Self-Analysis Blank of Vocational Guidance" the following questions appear. Comment upon their purpose and value.
 - a. Have you any system of saving?
 - b. Are you given to boasting about what you have done or can do?
 - c. Do you make a strong finish or do you quit easily?
 - d. What movie stars do you prefer?
 - e. Are you looking for an easy job, or are you willing to put your best effort into a worth-while occupation?

f. Have you planned to go to college?

g. Have you any habits which you think might keep you from success?

4. Account for the fact that guidance is more necessary now than a half century ago.
5. Give reasons for taking up the problem of educational guidance in courses in citizenship.
6. Do local and state higher educational institutions have special claims which a teacher should recognize when giving a student advice on choice of college? Discuss.
7. Point out examples of ignorant advice which it should be the duty of the school to counteract.
8. Show how the teacher is really engaged in vocational guidance when she helps the pupil to select his course of study.
9. Give some proof that school work becomes more efficient when it is connected up with an educational objective.
10. Prepare an assembly program that has vocational guidance for its purpose.
11. Show how the ordinary school subjects can be used to teach pupils ideals of quality.
12. Ask some pupils or older people how teachers have been of most help to them. Apply the answers to the subject of this chapter.

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PART III
INTEGRATION OF THE SCHOOL AND THE
COMMUNITY

CHAPTER XIII

CIVIC TRAINING THROUGH COMMUNITY SERVICE

The problem of integration. Few topics have been more exhaustively considered, and few have less successfully materialized, than the problem of the integration of the school and the community. This condition suggests that there must be somewhere in the program a fundamental defect. An examination of the ideals of the promoters and the work undertaken reveals that the integration of the school and the community has been considered the work of individual leaders. Success has, therefore, depended upon the spirit and the ability of the individual leader. Often the work ceased altogether when the tenure of the leader ended. Sometimes effort was diverted to other purposes. In either case there was lack of organized, consistent work towards the realization of defined objectives.

Thorough-going, permanent integration can best be brought about by long-continued work for practical, helpful, and common ideals, habits, and knowledge. The particular activities through which the work of amalgamation is to be accomplished should be connected up with institutions more enduring and more comprehensive than the interests and capacities of one person. In most cases the leadership should issue from the school, and it may be made to do so through the proper training of the children. The school should first teach and train in the development of the common qualities of real life. This training and influence should then be projected into the community and put to its service. The administration of any school can be successful only to the extent it serves the community by ministering to its educa-

tional needs and demands, and thus aids in the life work of the people and their children.

Need for integration. Apart from its social service function the school would have scant justification. As the guiding intelligence of the community it should bring into use whatever has been produced that is socially useful. We cannot rest content with the old idea that all that is necessary to keep a community going forward is to set up organizations and "let the people do the rest." The people are paying out their hard-earned money for actual help, not for empty organizations that will "let them do it." They are willing to pay for the scientific training of their children, and to coöperate in education in the hope of greater financial success and fuller, richer, and happier lives.

The school can make a great contribution to community welfare. Only of late years have we come to appreciate the great wealth we have in pupil resources. The strength and virtue of twenty million of our youth arrayed in the cause of civic betterment offer possibilities almost incalculable. The reaction is also beneficial to the school. It prevents its isolation, and makes transition from school to society easy and gradual. The school life takes on a new meaning and a new vitality. Finally, there is provided a means of keeping up civic activities during the vacation period when the school has often ceased to function or to have influence.

Types of service organizations. Two types of organizations may be utilized in bringing the school and the community into unified relationship. First are those originated and controlled by the school itself. A civic league, which extends its service beyond the school, is an example. The second type consists of those organizations and activities which are independent of the school, but which join with it in a common purpose and in common effort. In some instances, the membership is confined only to adults. In other

cases, children constitute the active personnel. In still others, adults and children coöperate, the latter often in an affiliated junior society. The object in any case may be the community, the school, or the two jointly. The Boy Scouts, the Junior Chamber of Commerce, and Parent-Teacher Association illustrate the second type.

The purpose of this section is to show how the school and the community may be more closely allied in civic ideals and activities which are mutually helpful. The first chapter will show how the school may provide civic training through service to the community, and through coöperation with independent service associations organized for juveniles. The second brings out the many ways in which community effort may be used to supplement the school resources and program. The third deals with the mutual activities of both school and community in a civic task of utmost importance. This is the task of racial integration, or, as it is commonly called, Americanization. The fourth and last chapter of the section is concerned with the part which the professional teacher may play in advancing a program of civic improvement.

Types of service activities. It is not expected that any service organization will confine itself to the performance of a single function. Nevertheless it may well choose a specialty, and occupy itself with others only as a special need arises, as in times of a community crisis, or to keep up interest through variety. A diversified program also has something to commend it in its appeal to people of varying capacities, and in its broader educational offerings. On the whole, though, the organization should focalize all its energies upon a clear and definite civic function. The list below is comprehensive enough for ordinary purposes.

1. The promotion of industry and thrift. The correlated activities under this function include school and home gardens, in-

dustrial clubs, savings, fire prevention, and property protection from theft and injury.

2. Community improvement. Under this heading may be group activities in establishing and caring for parks, playgrounds, swimming pools, planting of trees and flowers, and removal of litter and other unsightly material.
3. Community advertising. Appropriate activities are guide books, community books, articles in the newspapers, the school paper, and the exchange of letters.
4. Cultural opportunities. These comprise lectures, music, pictures, general entertainment, and libraries.
5. Health and recreation, and safety. These may be developed through campaigns, coöperation with government departments, and home and community training.
6. Instruction and training in subject-matter. This function is realized in combination with many others by juvenile societies, such as the Boy Scouts and Camp Fire Girls.
7. General programs. Main purpose civic and moral.

The use of existing organizations. Many organizations already exist for community service. It is therefore unnecessary and unwise to duplicate them. If a pupil belongs to two or three social organizations in the school, and to one or two extra-school service clubs, his available time will be sufficiently well cared for. All juvenile associations make demands upon adult leadership. If their energies are allowed to be scattered and dispersed through a multiplicity of duties they will be efficient in none. Moreover, an organization operating on a national or world scale has superior advantages over the purely local. The many allied branches supply opportunities for emulation and competition. The general officers can be of immense help in planning activities, in supervising, and in building up loyalty and spirit.

The school need seldom fear interference in its own peculiar affairs. Should the teacher find that aggressive local or national officers of subsidiary clubs are infringing upon her rights, and attempting to dictate what the pupils shall

do, they should be put politely but firmly in their proper place. On the other hand, the social functions served by these organizations are so vital as to give them a claim to consideration. The plea put up by some teachers that they must center all the efforts of themselves and their pupils upon grammar, spelling, writing, and the other conventional subjects usually indicates either poor teaching in those subjects or a false idea of values. There are some things the school can do in furthering community interests without detracting in the slightest from its efficiency along conventional educational lines. Among these are the following:

1. Supply leadership in introducing service agencies, and in their management.
2. Add to the influence of the organizations and to the success of their efforts by strong moral support and encouragement.
3. Help to make school facilities available for meetings and other uses by the service agencies.
4. Suggest ways and means by which the efficiency and development of the organizations may be increased.
5. Take advantage of suitable opportunities to project the educational work of the school into the adult community, and into community phases of child life.

Typical service agencies described. The principle has been made that the teacher should endeavor to use agencies already established. Those first in the field may be considered entitled to it until the need for others arise. The problem then becomes one of introducing an agency which is best equipped for the performance of the special function. All pupils that are competent should have membership in at least one association outside of school. Teachers may, in carrying out this principle, find communities plainly in need of several new societies. In order to supply some basis for selection, a few typical service agencies are described below. A few of the actual accomplishments of the associations are also given. These serve not only to describe, but to suggest, activities which leaders may care to introduce.

The Boy Scouts. "The great aim of the Boy Scouts of America is to make every Boy Scout a better citizen." This statement is taken from the official handbook, in which is found practical advice to patrols, much informational material of a general character, a rather extensive bibliography of good books for boys, and the ritual. Full instructions concerning the organization of troops may be obtained by writing to Headquarters, Boy Scouts of America, New York City.

Boys are admitted at the age of twelve years. Membership may be said to terminate at eighteen, though the older boys are encouraged to stay in as assistant scout masters. The motto of the society is "Be Prepared." The Scouts are not military, but advocate universal peace. Loyalty, patriotism, and chivalry are set down as three of their important teaching objectives. Nonsectarianism is another fundamental principle of the order.

Before he becomes a member, a boy must pledge himself as follows:

On my honor I will do my best:

1. To do my duty to God and my country, and to obey the scout law;
2. To help other people at all times;
3. To keep myself physically strong, mentally awake, and morally straight.

Twelve laws which the Scout promises to obey summarize the educational program. They are brief and clear, and with the explanations contained in the handbook are an effective guide to conduct. The laws are:

- | | |
|----------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. A Scout is trustworthy. | 7. A Scout is obedient. |
| 2. A Scout is loyal. | 8. A Scout is cheerful. |
| 3. A Scout is helpful. | 9. A Scout is thrifty. |
| 4. A Scout is friendly. | 10. A Scout is brave. |
| 5. A Scout is courteous. | 11. A Scout is clean. |
| 6. A Scout is kind. | 12. A Scout is reverent. |

Progress in scouting is provided for through having three classes. To pass from one grade to another requires the possession of achievement and skill in certain fields, such as first-aid, saving, signaling, cooking, the use of tools, nature study, physical activities, and map reading. Merit badges are awarded to Scouts who have passed to the highest grade, that of first-class Scouts, and who pass a satisfactory examination before the court of honor of the local council. Fifty-eight different types of divisions of knowledge are prescribed, for which badges are awarded to the proficient. The winner of ten merit badges is entitled to the star badge, and the winner of twenty-one gains the eagle badge.

Scout leaders and activities. A scout master must be at least twenty-one years old. He must be of high character, and interested in boys. Men who know outdoor life and have a large fund of practical knowledge are most desirable. There is a large opportunity for service and influence for teachers as scout masters. The boys are of the plastic age, and respond readily to the suggestions of the strong and likable personality. One who does not like boys and is not liked by them cannot make a success as leader. The formalism of some school systems is inadmissible. The spirit, purpose, and activities of the Boy Scouts are favorable to the growth of civic character, and the right leader needs nothing more than the program to attain the desired end.

Services of many kinds are performed by the boys. Leaving aside the value of the organization on the individual and the group, we may summarize some of the things accomplished as follows:

1. Management of campaigns at school and in the homes for the protection of property from fire.
2. Petitioned city council for playgrounds.
3. Secured the closing of streets adjacent to the school grounds during recess periods.

4. Act as traffic squads at dangerous crossings.
5. Guide visitors about the community, and act as messengers when the community is host to visitors.
6. In charge of playgrounds.
7. Give buttons and medals to pupils who attain high grades in school.
8. Collect salvage materials.
9. Sell War Savings Stamps.
10. Operate home gardens.
11. Distribution of patriotic literature.
12. Special help in time of labor shortage in saving crops.

The Girl Scouts. The sister organization of the Boy Scouts of America has had a phenomenal growth since its organization in 1912. Its membership has reached the hundred thousand mark, with troops and councils in all parts of the country. Every State is fully organized, and the society is affiliated with the Girl Guides of the British Empire and with similar organizations in the leading countries of the world.

The activities of Girl Scouts center about three interests — home, health, and citizenship. Proficiency badges are awarded for forty different fields of activity. These include thrift and economy, first-aid, house planning, and various forms of coöperative work and play. Public health is a subject of major interest. Every girl is expected to become a "health guardian" which means that she must help enforce quarantine and sanitary regulations, help provide and safeguard pure water, clean streets, hygienic schools, and public playgrounds.

Method of organization. The organization is dependent upon voluntary leadership. Scout leaders have been largely drawn from the teaching force, because of their interest in young people and of their experience in getting their coöperation. Local councils composed of the most enterprising citizens of the community are formed to coöperate with the

leader and to act as the link between the troop and the community. Its function is advisory, the executive and teaching duties being performed by the troop leaders.

At the head of the organization is the National Council. Applications for positions of leadership are passed upon by this body before commissions are issued. Other duties consist in the training of leaders, the selling and distribution of materials, and the issue of a number of publications. The scout journal, *The American Girl*, goes to every member. The demand for leaders is so great that their training constitutes one of the major problems of the National Council. This need is being met as rapidly as possible through summer training camps, and through special courses in colleges and universities. Information concerning the location of the schools and camps and the courses of training are supplied on request by the regional director or the National Council.

The Girl Scouts and the school. The willingness of teachers to take over the leadership of troops, combined with the educational purpose of scouting has given the movement a prominent place in the school. Its introduction has made it possible to bring many improvements in health, social participation, and the enrichment of the course of study that were lacking under the rigid old-time school program. The following experiment in a small village school is recorded as an example of what conditions are and what may be accomplished through the Girl Scouts.

The girls of the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades had no ideals set for the right kind of conduct except that negative of "thou shalt not" pronounced by their parents who carried old country ideas into the discipline of their children under an environment different from what they had been brought up in. There was no coöperative activity in the experience of the children. It was an unheard-of thing for girls to meet together in a social group until they were old enough to attend the parties, or to take part in the festivals managed by the church. No time after school was allowed, for the

parents wanted the children to come home as soon as possible for work. No organization would be tolerated which suggested a departure from the traditional religious belief.

The course of study was made for English-speaking pupils by people who felt they must hold up high standards of achievement in academic work. It was administered by the examination method. The history course required a third of year for Greek and Roman history. The mathematics was the formal kind. Grammar was looked upon as a most essential study. Geography was based largely upon map study, and the memorization of places and products.

Under these unpropitious circumstances, a Girl Scout troop was organized. One of the first and greatest accomplishments was the correlation of the scout program with the curriculum. Situations were provided in civics which trained for participation in community life. Government and Americanization were combined with necessary school and neighborhood activities. Cooking was added, and one of the first results was the preparation of a county cookbook. The sewing course included a knowledge of textiles, actual practice in sewing, and some acquaintance with costume designing. Under manual arts were studied food, shelter, clothing, and bookbinding. Physical education was strengthened through meeting the exercise and play tests. Instruction and demonstration was also given in personal hygiene, first aid, home hygiene, and community hygiene. The nature study outline put out by the county was greatly expanded and connected directly with the community. The last feature of the new curriculum stressed business, with special instruction and practice in thrift and punctuality.

The results have been very encouraging. There has been nothing less than a transformation in the school. To this, the work of the scouts has largely contributed. Some of the obvious benefits are as follows:

1. An enriched course of study and new incentives in the performance of regular school work.
2. Recognition for tasks well done at home.
3. An ideal of community service has been built up.
4. A group consciousness was developed among the girls, and a spirit of good for the group rather than good for the individual instilled.
5. The girls have come to realize themselves as a part of a great

national and world group. This has helped to break up the terrible isolation from which their mothers suffer.

6. It has served to demonstrate that girls have abilities and rights as well as boys — facts of which the community under discussion was not particularly aware.
7. The members learned to respect the rights of others, to exert every effort to complete a task, to work together, to manage a small business, to be on time, and to expend their energies in a wholesome productive way.

The Girl Reserves. The Girl Reserves is an organization of school girls sponsored by the Young Women's Christian Association. The purpose of the Reserves is to educate in standards of life, to widen interests and to supply an agency for community service. The business of the leaders is to see that the club not only supplements the education each member is getting elsewhere, but that the club as a whole is contributing to the quickening of the whole current of civic life. The close coördination which exists between the Reserves, and the clubs of the older girls and older women in the Y.W.C.A., has made possible an integration of interests that is exceptional.

The lines of study and activity are numerous. The sponsors have tended to pioneer. Whatever is being neglected, wherever there is a need, the Reserves feel obligated to serve. So far as a general program has been adopted it embraces handicraft, collections, story-telling, discussion of personal questions and questions of citizenship and public morals, civic information, personal and civic thrift, business ideals, vocations, music and service. The national program is under development, and stresses health, citizenship, and intelligent Christianity as the best means of solving the complicated problems of to-day.

Leadership and achievements. The success of the Girl Reserves is, like that of the Boy Scouts, dependent upon intelligent, unselfish leadership. Women teachers have an

unparalleled opportunity to guide the girls of the upper grades and high school into avenues of useful service. Although the organization is relatively a new one, it has a splendid record of achievement, as is shown by the following:

1. Summer camps have been maintained.
2. Pageants and dramatics have been used as a means of portraying ideals of civic import. Examples of subjects used are: "The Spirit of Industry in Relation to International Understanding," and "The Health Carnival."
3. Musical evenings and informal folk singing have been introduced as features of the community Americanization program. The Y.W.C.A. has prepared two volumes of *Folk Songs of Many Lands* which are useful on such occasions.
4. Specific educational work in costume making, cooking, social usage, interior decorating, and history have been provided.
5. Lecture courses in American literature, citizenship, city government, art, and science have been planned.
6. A woman's forum on "Problems of Democracy" has been organized.

Industrial clubs. The industrial club offers perhaps the best means by which the school can take the best of scientific education into the community. Adults are rather hard to reach by direct methods. They can, however, be reached through the children. The boys can teach the fathers, the girls can teach the mothers. Additional profit may be found from the regular visits of club leaders to the homes.

The clubs should be organized on the plan proposed by the United States Agricultural Department. The well-prepared and readable bulletins, the practical suggestions for club activities, and the record and report system are indispensable. The work may well be regarded as an important type of coöperation with the Federal government. Usually the services of an expert advisor will also be furnished.

Leadership and activities. Industrial clubs are seldom a success unless the teacher takes the lead in their organiza-

tion and management. If she is inclined to ridicule the work of the clubs, the children will never make much headway in them. It is a favorable time for her to recognize the dignity and worth of honest labor, and to impress the children with the civic service performed by the worker. The correlation of the regular school subjects with the clubs will add to their interest and their value.

Industrial club work is simplified if the school has teachers of manual training, agriculture, and domestic science. A director of school gardens, a school physician, and a school nurse can also multiply the civic values in club work. In particular, some of these leaders should be under contract for twelve months in the year. The teacher of agriculture should demonstrate the actual application of the theory he teaches on the farms and in the home gardens. A similar type of work should be carried on with the girls by the domestic science teacher. The making of useful dresses, the canning of fruit and vegetables, the better care of babies, and a hundred ways of helpful service to the community should radiate from work in the school.

Club work illustrated. Hundreds of examples of industrial club activities may be obtained from the reports of State and national departments. They also contain detailed instructions to guide club leaders in every phase of club work. Standard clubs are usually found in home making, cooking, canning, sewing, and gardening for the girls. The boys may choose from the raising of poultry, sheep, calves, pigs, rabbits, corn, potatoes, and garden vegetables. Many other projects may be found in the field of manual arts. But one illustration of concrete achievement is given here. This is taken from a teacher's report, and embodies many characteristic features of club work.

Industrial clubs were organized in our school during the War, and were continued after its close. They had their beginning in

home gardens. Last year every child in this school of more than five hundred pupils had some share in a garden. Vacant lots and back yards were in great demand. Surplus products were marketed. Many of them were purchased by the manager of the school cafeteria.

The teacher of agriculture in the high school and eighth grade was made the director of industrial club work. Prizes were offered for the best products. The winners were decided by a committee which visited the homes and examined the animals and crops whenever the owner desired.

From this beginning developed the idea of gathering the year's productions under a common roof, and exhibiting everything raised at a community fair. The pupils who took agriculture were put in charge of the fair.

The exhibit was arranged to take place on Saturday, at the Fair Grounds. A community picnic was planned. The Boy Scouts had charge of the comfort of visitors, and found places suitable for spreading lunches. The Camp Fire Girls had charge of several stands where refreshments were served. A special committee featured the school band and a parade.

The parade contained anything that could travel. It was led by boys on horses, carrying a banner, "What — School Can Raise." The parade features were past counting: Poland China pigs, Holstein calves, Shetland ponies, ducks, geese, bantams, mothers and baby chicks, rabbits, goats, cats, kittens, dogs, sheep, carrier pigeons, and several wagons and scooters. Banners and other decorations were plentifully interspersed.

In the stalls were displays of many kinds of vegetables and fruit. The pupils of the seventh grade had charge of a wild flower exhibit. Over fifty varieties were shown. The mountains and valleys had been searched, and much interesting information gained during the effort. Prizes of books were offered for the best bouquet, the greatest variety of flowers, and the rarest flower.

The culinary side was not neglected. A prize was offered for the best loaf of bread, the best cake, and the best recipe for biscuits. The best display of canned fruits, and the greatest variety of jellies also drew awards. Prizes in the main consisted of ribbons and banners.

The afternoon's program consisted of a dramatization of Julius Caesar, presented by the student body. Costumes were planned and made by the costume committee. The production was a great

success, despite the fact that the corpse of the dead Emperor was seen to move as Mark Anthony gave his famous oration.

From a small general admission fee enough was realized to send a crippled seventh-grade boy to St. Louis for treatment. He was gone more than six months. (Bob is back now and is able to walk a long distance.)

Part of the exhibit was turned over to the Grange and sent to the State Fair. From the work of the industrial clubs there has been seen an appreciable improvement in the whole community. Crops are better; industries are more diversified; the home life is better. In the school there is found that the desire to participate in the affairs of the community has been intensified. Habits of cordial coöperation have been formed. The importance of the land and of work are keenly realized. Finally, the human objective (sending Bob away) was a cementing tie whose lasting results have been noted with appreciation.

The Junior Red Cross. The aim and character of the Junior Red Cross has been clearly stated in its publications. Believing that "the best citizens are they who serve best," the Junior Red Cross is making such citizens by training children in the service habit early in their career. Its training program contains definite projects of interest to children. These projects are to be used "as an avenue of training in service that teaches the duties of citizenship."

The plan of organization is very simple, and it appeals to children of all grades in the elementary school. The *Junior Red Cross News*, the *Service Calendar*, and many special leaflets and bulletins describe many worth-while achievements. The *Calendar* treats such topics as "Organization for Service" and "Fitness for Service," and points out things to do in service to individuals, the school, the community, and the world. Typical community-service programs include the following:

1. Live up to the safety-first rules.
2. Learn about fighting harmful weeds and insects.
3. Plan definite activities for the year to help prevent fire.

Make poster lists of "DON'Ts," and learn how to give first aid to fire victims.

4. Take active part in the observance of national health days.
5. Help collect and deliver clothing and food for the needy.
6. Help prevent accidents. List the common accidents and their causes. Take part in a community accident-prevention program.
7. Carry on a campaign for tree planting.
8. Give assistance in the day nursery, at the library story hour, and in playground activities.

A wide range of accomplishments are reported. Signal contributions have been made in health and relief work. Alliance with the Red Cross has influenced children and leaders to live up to its traditions. The list of things actually done, which is given below, is only a brief sample of customary activities where the Junior Red Cross has been organized. Some city schools embrace as many in their own programs:

1. The establishment and support of a Children's Hospital is the work of one school. The twenty-five cent dues are earned and saved by the children during the summer vacation. Much of the equipment was the work of children. Paper drives have proved valuable sources of income, and gifts not to exceed five dollars are accepted from parents.
2. The support of day nurseries.
3. Contributions of toys and clothing. The clothing and shoes are sometimes sent to the Junior Red Cross Shop and sold at a very small price.
4. The maintenance of dental clinics is common.
5. Foreign relief is a major activity. Both clothing and money are sent to needy children abroad. The clothing is often made in the schools.
6. The selling of Christmas seals is regarded as a special privilege of the organization. The receipts go to associations engaged in the elimination of tuberculosis.
7. The Junior Red Cross is responsible for county health nurses in many rural sections. The children raise money by doing

chores, janitor work, and selling the products of their service gardens.

8. Traveling libraries are supplied in many smaller schools through the work of the Junior Red Cross.

Civic Leagues. Another service organization that has more than justified itself is the Junior Civic League. Modeled after Civic Improvement Clubs with adult membership, in many cities the Juniors have surpassed the parent league in accomplishment. There is no national plan, and teachers may organize independently of other associations. The plan followed may, therefore, be adjusted to any special need. One of the best examples of this type of organization is the Junior Civic League of Lincoln, Nebraska. Organized in 1914, it now has a membership of approximately ten thousand pupils, and a long list of civic accomplishments to its credit. Something of what has been done may be seen from the list given below:

1. The trees of the city were saved from the ravages of the Tussock moth.
2. Have taken the responsibility of conducting the "Clean-up, Keep-up" campaigns.
3. Are leaders in the home garden movement.
4. Assist the fire department by making surveys of fire dangers.
5. Conduct safety campaigns, and help in "Buy-at-Home" projects.
6. Led in the campaign for workmen's compensation legislation.

Much instruction is given through the medium of civic excursions. Accompanied by teachers, the young citizens meet at the assembly room of the Chamber of Commerce. Here they are addressed by some prominent citizen, who prepares them to get the most good out of their visit to the city's institutions. Excursions are made to stores, factories, banks, and places of public business. Definite classroom

studies are connected up with the excursions as preparation and summary. In addition, each local school group is obligated to carry out one civic project a year. Recognition of merit is provided for through the efficiency certificate, given by the Chamber of Commerce.

Principles of community service. Some of the leading principles in organizing and carrying on service activities may be stated as follows:

1. New organizations should not be introduced into a community unless there is unquestioned need. To prevent the scattering of energies, and the jealousies which may arise from competition, it is sometimes better to limit the service organizations to two or three.
2. Organizations operating on a national scale have many advantages over local clubs, but are not always so adaptable to special purposes, nor so amenable to school control.
3. Responsible leadership should always be insured before the school enters into coöperative relationships with any organization.
4. Compulsory and formal programs should be entirely discarded. The chief guide to activities should be the interests of the group.
5. In general, practice should characterize the instructional plan. In some instances, teaching of the classroom type may be used to supplement participation and "learning by doing."
6. As in the case of all voluntary undertakings, substantial social recognition for all contributions should be provided. Home credits, badges, and efficiency certificates may be used.

Summary. One of the great problems of the school is to bring about and maintain a unity of aim and activity with the community. This objective has often failed in the past because of the failure to provide for continuity of effort. Too much reliance has been placed upon individuals, with the result that progress usually ends when the tenure of the leader expires. This defect in socialization may be guarded against by aligning programs of integration of school and

community with permanent organizations and permanent school functions. The extension of the work of departments of agriculture, domestic science, and health help to bring about a fund of common ideas and an appreciation of the values of education, as well as material improvement. The general service-aims of the school can also be effectively linked up with juvenile organizations, of which the Boy Scouts, Girl Reserves, and the Junior Red Cross are typical examples.

EXERCISES AND PROBLEMS

1. Point out some of the advantages of putting the community-service programs of the school into relationship with the programs of outside organizations.
2. Why should the leadership in service work be expected to issue from the school?
3. Account for the failure of promising types of service programs.
4. Comment upon the relative advantages of an organization concerning itself with a single specialty, and carrying forward a diversified program.
5. Bring in a report of the work of some juvenile service organization which you have known. Note the organization, the type of leadership, the work accomplished, and the reasons for special strength or weakness.
6. Justify the statement that formal and compulsory activities should not be introduced into the programs of such organizations as the Boy Scouts and Girl Reserves.
7. Talk with some adult who has been a member of a juvenile organization, and report his conclusions regarding its benefits to him.
8. Discuss the validity of the plea sometimes advanced by teachers that they cannot take time from the usual school subjects to engage in service activities.
9. What are the chief things which teachers can do in furthering the work of the extra-school organizations of children?
10. Show reasons for the statement that teachers should be especially good leaders for Boy Scouts and Girl Reserves.
11. The records of the Department of Agriculture show that, on the whole, only a small percentage of the pupils who enroll for industrial club work ever complete their projects. To what do you attribute this failure? Should the work be counted as valueless for the group

eliminated simply because they fail to carry the undertaking through to the end? Discuss.

12. Draw up some rules which you would follow in starting new service activities in a community where there were none in existence, or where they had once been and had been allowed to die out.

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CHAPTER XIV

HOW THE COMMUNITY CAN HELP THE SCHOOL IN CIVIC EDUCATION

Objectives in enlisting community aid. The maintenance of purely formal relationships between the school and the community cannot be expected to result in complete integration. A program of common work contributes more to this desirable end than comes from the attendance of parents at athletic contests, holiday celebrations, school exhibits, and lecture programs. In the preceding chapter, the school was shown helping the community. This is the first step in unifying the school and the community. The process of school and community integration is completed when the community works with the school and for the school. How this necessary coöperation may be promoted is the subject of this chapter.

The school cannot be considered selfish in promoting agencies for community coöperation in matters of education. The resulting values are widely dispersed throughout the community by the pupils who receive them. In the broadest sense, the people come to regard the school as an institution devoted to the perpetuation of social forces and institutions. The strength and force of the community is renewed and kept alive by the constant flow of new members from the school. It is the factor which integrates succeeding generations. In doing its work it would be strange indeed if it failed to use the tools society employs in carrying on its coöperative enterprises.

The final objective in enlisting community aid in civic education is to add to the efficiency of the community. Because the school is a part of the community it adds in this

way to its own efficiency. It is absolutely dependent upon the public for its support. In working with the community it is merely showing its understanding of the values which result from public interests. These take the form of better buildings, adequate equipment, the use of out-of-school agencies in promoting child welfare, and the opportunity to make public the aims of the school. There are also found in every community a good many people of fine ability who are looking for openings through which they can direct their energies into service to society. To these people, the idea of helping in education makes a strong appeal.

How the public may help. There is practically nothing done in the school that cannot be traced to a community source. Much of it, however, can be traced through official channels, and simply represents the official action of the school board. Reference in this chapter is mainly to the free, voluntary contribution of the many public-spirited men and women of the community. Usually the service is given without any display, and often without recognition. The voluntary help is expressed in the following ways:

1. By supplementing school instruction in many ways. This includes instruction and training which for some reason the school is prohibited from giving; which it would like to give but lacks the proper facilities for; or which it can give only inadequately. Such subjects as religion, sex, vocations, and fine arts may be cited as illustrations.
2. In supplementing school equipment. This comprises the use of books from private libraries; vacant lots for gardens; buildings for club meetings, class instruction and assemblies; and parks and playgrounds.
3. In safeguarding the health and morals of children. The community is often willing to carry on campaigns for the regulation of commercial ventures of doubtful value which the school could deal with very ineffectually. The regulation of advertising in the vicinity of the school, pool rooms and confectionaries, and movies are examples.

4. By improving pupil coöperation. The results of this nature are reflected in better attendance, greater obedience, and improved scholarship.
5. By helping in special educational campaigns. A campaign for better school buildings is typical.

Two steps should be taken preliminary to calling upon the public for aid. First, the teacher should take stock of the community resources which the school needs. This requires a survey of parks and playgrounds, libraries, assembly halls, garden ground, and conditions which appear to menace the health or morals of the pupils. The second step should be to find out what people and what organizations are most likely to respond when called upon. The first part of the survey may largely be made by the pupils. The second part should be made by the teacher. The teacher should not be discouraged by reports to the effect that "things can't be made to go in this community," or, "nobody cares about the school here." She will find in any community at least a few good people who are willing to sacrifice almost anything for the cause of education.

Supplying agencies for coöperation. Assuming that the teacher has informed herself fully concerning the educational resources of the community, the next step is to see that means for coöperation are supplied. As in the case of the societies for boys and girls, she will find it usually better to rely upon existing organizations. She will also depend in a large measure upon the people who have stood loyally by the school in the past. Should there be no individual who is trained in the work which it is proposed to do, or should the right type of organization be lacking, the teacher should go to work to interest some of the most promising people of the community in education, and in laying plans for the perfection of the required associations.

Getting and keeping the people interested in the school is

an essential requirement. The best avenue for this is the pupils. If the pupils are enthusiastic about school, the parents are usually willing to give favorable attention to further plans for progress. There is abundant reason in this fact alone for appealing to pupil support. Nevertheless, the teacher cannot rely solely upon the reports and efforts of children for instituting improved educational conditions.

Getting the community interested. People cannot be interested in a constructive way if the teacher is too prodigal in pointing out defects in the school. She should, on the other hand, mention the good things, and only as acquaintance matures make tactful reference to desirable additions. In bringing the school to the consciousness of the community she will use such devices as publicity through the press, conferences with leaders, visits in the homes, and those special occasions when the parents are invited to visit the school.

The last two deserve special mention. As soon as the school work is well under way, the teacher should commence to visit the homes of her pupils. Two afternoons a week for the first half month is sufficient for a good beginning. The purpose of the visits is to establish a friendly basis for co-operation. They should in all reason be informal. Future visits should be made as the teacher's time permits. They should not be made only when the teacher has some report or failure in scholarship or discipline to make.

The object in school visitation as it is referred to here is to enable the patrons to see the usual work of the school. No special program should be prepared. Pupil coöperation, however, should not be overlooked. The invitations should be written by the pupils. Some of the older ones may act as a reception committee. All should be appealed to to help make the work go off as successfully as possible. The daily

program should be in plain sight on the board. Before beginning a class exercise, the teacher should explain briefly the object in view and the method to be used. Where the socialized method is the rule, the president of the class may give any explanations which are needed to make the procedure clear.

Sometimes it may be advisable to hold school in the evening and invite the patrons to be present. This is a practice not at all unusual in the high schools. The pupils are dismissed for the afternoon and return with their parents for an evening session. The regular afternoon program is then carried on. The parents go about from class to class, and may share in some degree at least in the class discussions. At the close of the visit, it is a good idea to serve refreshments, and to take a few minutes for getting acquainted.

Informal coöperation. If desired, special problems of the school and the community may be taken up at these visitation periods. If such a plan is adopted, the purpose should appear on the invitations. Other preliminary preparation is advisable in order that any proposal may not be a complete surprise. The support of a few leaders should have been gained in advance by personal conference. The children should also have realized the need of the proposed improvement. The following report of the methods used to interest parents in the purchase of a larger school ground illustrates many of the most important points to keep in mind:

A rural community erected a modern school building on the old grounds. It occupied at least three times as much space as the old one had, and was attended by three times as many pupils. The problem of the teachers was to find play space.

The new building stood just as the carpenters had left it. No attempt had been made to improve the school ground. The people felt that they had gone to the limit of extravagance in voting money for a building. They were in no mood to consider further outlays.

The teachers felt that something must be done at once. They started to work with the pupils to improve the grounds.

The first efforts were directed towards the utilization of what little space there was. After considerable persuasion, the trustees consented to have several trees which were not needed removed. The yard was overgrown with weeds, but this was a matter easily attended to by the pupils. They all rallied to the help of the teachers, and an army of hoes, rakes, and shovels was mustered from home. How they did work to clean up that school ground! No one in the community could fail to notice the improvement, and the pupils were proud of what they had done.

Directly back of the school property was an acre of valuable land, belonging to a non-resident. The purchase of this property was the logical solution of the yard problem. When the matter was mentioned it met with disapproval. The trustees insisted that it would be impossible to arouse community sentiment to the point of voting bonds for the land.

The teachers, however, thought it quite possible. As a part of the campaign, athletic teams were organized among the pupils, and contests were arranged for with neighboring schools. The games were always played on the opponent's ground. The parents often accompanied the children on these trips. In this way they became acquainted with the teachers and learned what other schools were doing. They also learned from the pupils why no games were played at the home school. Many of them manifested considerable interest and concern over the lack of play facilities at the home school.

Then the final effort was made. A visitation afternoon was arranged, the climax to be a picnic supper. Tables were placed under the trees on the school grounds. The pupils, the trustees, and a few public-spirited citizens were aware of our purpose. Nearly the whole community turned out, and for the first time in years the people met together in a spirit of friendliness.

After seeing an hour of regular school work, a little program was put on for entertainment. Into the program were worked some original songs and a play which told of the need for more playground. The county superintendent then spoke for a few minutes, and asked the people to vote money to buy the desired acreage. At a later date, the matter came to a vote. The bonds passed unanimously and the property was purchased.

From the standpoint of community spirit and further helpful-

ness to the school, the campaign was even more valuable than the land. The members of the community awoke to the fact that the school needed their support.

Parent-Teacher Associations. One of the best agencies for school and community coöperation is the formal association of parents and teachers known as the Parent-Teacher Association. It is national in scope, and thoroughly experienced in methods of coöperation. The placing of definite responsibility to plan ways and means of helping, and the selection of the most competent for leaders, makes for higher efficiency in common work. Ideas also come in from other associations, and there is a constant stimulus for active participation in school betterment. Permanent improvements on a large scale are unlikely until they are backed by strong public approval. There is no influence so great in determining policies as that of interested parents. The teacher should supply the fullest information of the school and its program. Parents who know make the task of the teacher easier.

The promotion of child welfare by home, school, church, and State is the avowed general aim of the organization. Two special aims relate definitely to the school: (1) To bring into closer relation the home and the school; and (2) to interest men and women in coöperating with the schools in the work for better conditions in the community. It is not its purpose to interfere with the administration of the school.

A general outline of the legitimate functions of a Parent-Teacher Association has been made by Professor Mead as follows:

1. Self-educative — the parents and teachers help each other. The parents learn the necessity of prompt and regular attendance on the part of the pupils, acquire interest in the school building, the curriculum, and the equipment. The teacher

learns home conditions, the parents' ideals of education, and reading practices.

2. Coöperative — the Association furnishes the medium for the coöperation of children, teachers, and parents in the formation of good habits among the children.
3. Advisory — the Association may offer valuable advice to the teachers and to the school authorities.
4. Promotion of publicity — campaigns for better equipment and facilities may be given as examples of proper subjects.
5. Stimulative function — the Association may call attention to needs overlooked by the teachers and the superintendent.
6. Promotion of social welfare — refers to support of legislative and relief programs outside of school.
7. Coöperation with National agencies — the United States Bureau of Education, the Public Health Association, and the National Education may be given as illustrative.
8. Limits of functions — this includes a list of things with which the association should not as a rule interfere:
 - a. Ordinary problems of school discipline.
 - b. Actual selection of teachers.
 - c. Selection of textbooks.
 - d. Assignment of teachers and pupils to grades and rooms.
 - e. Actual organization of courses of study.
 - f. Dictation of teaching methods used.

The method of organization is very simple. The persons who are interested meet together and form a temporary organization. A committee is then appointed to draw up a constitution. After the adoption of the constitution and the election of permanent officers, the group may affiliate with the National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations. This is done by sending the names of the officers and members to the state secretary, accompanied by dues to the amount of ten cents a member. The address of the state officers may usually be obtained from near-by associations, or from the office of the State Superintendent of Schools.

Activities and achievements. The program of the Asso-

ciation is sufficiently broad to embrace most of the ordinary problems of the school. The achievements have been as varied as the local needs which the organizations mean as a matter of first importance to meet. The following are examples of work done that may be suggestive to some of the newer societies:

1. In California, the State having the largest membership, over \$150,000 was raised in a single year. This was expended for school equipment, hot lunches at a minimum cost, milk for under-nourished children, and scholarships.
2. Other associations have purchased school supplies, promoted health programs, furnished books for the school libraries, planted trees on the school grounds, improved attendance, and helped in school building campaigns.
3. Several high-school associations have been successful in simplifying the school dress, in providing chaperons at parties, in introducing better moving pictures, and in the encouragement of wholesome recreation.
4. The associations have often coöperated in campaigns for thrift, for safety observance, for law enforcement, for Americanization, and for kindergartens.
5. Reading-circle courses have been planned and pursued with profit. The courses have been built around such topics as the care of infants, the proper feeding of children, the use of leisure, the prevention of delinquency, the care of neglected children, health and hygiene, and many subjects of a general cultural nature.
6. Another significant contribution has consisted of help in the enforcement of the laws against selling cigarettes to minors, the closing of places morally objectionable, and the passage of new laws protecting children.

Most of the criticisms which may in justice be directed against the organization owe their origin to an excess of zeal or a lack of experience, and not to fundamental shortcomings. The mistakes that have been made are neither numerous nor glaring. Efficiency is constantly increasing as the groups gain in experience and knowledge. That the

association is itself aware of the cautions to be observed is well shown by its list of "Don'ts" in the Official Handbook. A few are quoted here:

1. Don't attempt to dictate the policy of administration of the school.
2. Don't bring private grievances to the meetings. They should be settled in the school office.
3. Don't allow the association to be used for the promotion of personal interests by individuals or political parties.
4. Don't allow money raising to feature too largely in your work. There are more important ends to be attained.
5. Don't expect the teachers to drill the pupils especially for their part in the program. Don't keep the children waiting through tedious preliminaries.
6. Don't assign all the work to a small number of members. Train up new workers by the distribution of duties and responsibilities.
7. Don't compel your speaker to listen to business reports and long preliminary programs. Give him an early place on the program, and a chance to get the early train home.
8. Don't let your meetings become too formal. Have free discussion and free fellowship.

The chamber of commerce. Most communities have some form of commercial organization. The membership are usually typical of the best in the community, and their influence is many-sided and far-reaching. Matters that affect the business affairs of the school should be brought before them. The business man is quick to reach a decision and is very responsive to practical appeals. In planning building campaigns, playground extensions, and the introduction of new subjects — such as manual training, domestic science, and the commercial branches — the advice and coöperation of the business associations should be early sought.

They will also as a rule be found loyal supporters of special activities. School efforts which have community advertising and improvement as objectives are cordially wel-

comed. Thrift and savings, fire prevention, better health, law enforcement, and public safety are activities that are universally endorsed. The membership seldom refuse to provide prizes for school achievement in any line, and are active in the support of education. If a junior chamber of commerce is organized, it will derive information, encouragement, friendly guidance, and aid of the most substantial sort from the adult organizations.

The Grange. In rural communities the Grange and the Farmers' Union supply the need filled in the cities by the Chamber of Commerce. Farmers' organizations are notably friendly to education. It is often well for the teacher to be a member. By suggestion and through discussions she may bring the needs of the school before the members. She should not launch too many campaigns that are not reasonably hopeful of success, and when outvoted should submit with good grace. Her attitude should always be characterized by sincerity, and by an earnest effort to put all the facts clearly on the table. Unfortunately the farmers have not yet seen fit to foster affiliated junior auxiliaries.

As opportunity is afforded, the teacher should briefly summarize the chief accomplishments of the school, and should outline the probable future problems. She should encourage the discussion of live school subjects before the meetings. Topics such as consolidation, better buildings, the health of rural children, community beautification, the school library, and play and recreation are suitable. The campaign of education along any line of contemplated improvement should be launched several months before the local campaign is opened. The practical assistance rendered by Granges has as a rule taken the direction of that of parent-teacher associations. They have generally been very valuable in getting new legislation.

Government departments. Help may be obtained from

government departments in several ways. They are a reliable source of information. Committees working on special problems may get publications, personal data, and, in some instances, access to public records. The doors are usually open to visitors. Officials may often be persuaded to visit the school, and to talk to the pupils on their duties and responsibilities. In helping the school they may also realize many benefits for themselves. Children may be of the greatest assistance to health officers, policemen, and firemen.

One of the largest cities of the country only recently furnished a splendid example of official coöperation with the schools. All the departments kept open house to the school children for a week. During this period the children thronged the city hall, and the police and the fire stations. Attentive officials guided the visitors about and explained the work of their departments to them. At the close of the visit, the mayor addressed the older pupils and impressed on them the value of their services as citizens.

Coöperation from individuals. The best citizens regard no other obligation more deeply than that of aiding in education. Teachers should not be too modest about making opportunities for individual service known. Another point to keep in mind is that any one ordinarily takes a livelier interest in an institution for which he has done something. Leadership in public meetings where the school has something at stake is one way to begin the initiation. Another way is to request help in the direction of clubs and societies. Some of the most deserving may be given the privilege of offering prizes for scholarship. An especial effort should be made to get some of the most able members of the group to concern themselves with the future of needy but promising students. The stimulus of adult friendship may prove the factor that makes for success.

This type of service to the capable may be varied by re-

questing discerning persons to assume some responsibility for the idle and near-delinquent. The "Big Brother" and the "Big Sister" movement furnish plenty of guidance for work of this kind. In general, applications for help with the ne'er-do-well should be made to young men and women. People who are noted for energy and industry, and who stand high in the community favor, should be selected.

Principles of community helping. The following principles, to guide the teacher in relations with the community in its capacity for school aid, may be mentioned:

1. The course which the community is to be asked to take should be seen a long way in advance by the teacher and other leaders. Education should always precede the actual proposal of the issue.
2. The teacher should be well informed concerning the active and potential educational resources of the community which may be summoned in support of the school. She should, in particular, cultivate friendly relations with all, and should take stock of the community leaders.
3. In the actual work of coöperation, projects should be so distributed among individuals and organizations that all have something worth while to do.
4. The teacher should be persevering. She should be cheerful in the face of disappointment. She should take no comments made by those who oppose the improvement program as personal.
5. While one project is under way the teacher should be planning another.
6. Dependence should be placed upon existing organizations rather than in the creation of new.

Summary. Integration of the school and community is not complete until each is engaged in serving the other. Incidental school activities cannot be expected to bind the school and the community together in anything more than a formal bond. While the school secures the immediate benefits, in the end they are scattered throughout the community.

Success can best be realized through the use of the going organizations. Among the organizations that can help are Parent-Teacher Association, commercial clubs, Granges, and official departments. In all cases, the teacher has an important duty in interesting and leading the public.

EXERCISES AND PROBLEMS

1. A rural typical community has no organization devoted to helping the school. Discuss whether the teacher should promote the organization of a Grange, or of a Parent-Teacher Association. Would there be greater advantages in having both?
2. What objections can you find to a Parent-Teacher Association which devotes itself to giving entertainments?
3. Discuss the probable effect of delayed beginnings and late closings on an organization such as a Parent-Teacher Association.
4. Suppose the teacher finds that a small group or clique run the Parent-Teacher Association, and do not do a very good job of it. What may be done about it?
5. Make a list of as many objections to a Parent-Teacher Association as you can. Are any of these due to some inherent or general weakness in the organization? How can each be removed?
6. Try to interview some teachers of experience concerning their views of coöperating with the community. Talk with some parents concerning coöperation with the school. Compare the two views, and see what there is common in them.
7. What objections, if any, can you see to the action of private organizations supplementing school funds for the purchase of equipment, playgrounds, material, and library books?
8. What differences would you expect to find in two schools, one of which has well organized coöperating community-and-school organizations, and one of which has not?
9. Make up a list of ways that would be useful in interesting members of the community in the school.
10. Show how the public press may be a powerful aid to the school.
11. In the same way show how the churches help the school.
12. Indicate in general what the object and attitude of the teacher should be while engaged in visiting the homes.

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CHAPTER XV

SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY COÖPERATION IN AMERICANIZATION

The meaning of Americanization. The unity and the strength of a people has been said to depend upon the possession of common likenesses. Thus people are bound together by a common language, religion, ideals, history and tradition, customs, and race. Of all differences, none are more significant in the common mind than race. The reasons for this are not hard to discover. Racial differences have usually been associated with other differences as well. Moreover, the term has from time immemorial carried with it an idea of an enemy.

The American social and political organization is based upon principles which disregard the racial factor. The assumption is that manhood and womanhood, in fact, character, are what count, independent of racial origins or history. We have believed that racial differences need not stand in the way of national unity and social integration. We have been conscious of the fact that our people are drawn from many different lands, and that many different racial stocks are represented among us. Nevertheless, it is a fundamental tenet of ours that these people, so diverse racially, may be merged into an integral, unified, national group. They may be given command of a common body of knowledge, ideals, traditions, language, and customs. The process by which racial differences are superseded by national unity is called Americanization.

What the problem is. The problem may be looked upon as one that falls almost entirely within the educational field.

We are not the first people that ever faced it. The question of racial relationships is just as old as human association. More than one nation has been brought to failure because it could not integrate all of its varying racial groups into one inseparable whole. We have the advantage over older countries in that we have a well-organized educational institution with which to attack the problem.

The problem assumes a number of aspects. On the one hand, it is a matter of getting acquainted. In doing this, one group needs to learn as much about the others as possible. It means the willingness to take over whatever contributions to social efficiency any race is able to give. On the other hand, it demands a willingness on the part of the groups farthest removed from our national ideal to seek after, accept, and adapt themselves to the common mode. In doing this it may mean the surrender of many old racial ideas and practices. If so, they should be cheerfully given up. It is to be expected that our customs would be somewhat modified, and not always for the best, by the influence of the different, even conflicting, customs of the broad stream of immigrants which has poured into this country during the past three quarters of a century. It is, however, too much to expect that our national modes of behavior will be or should be voluntarily changed because they differ from those of the incoming peoples. In the main, the latest comers and the ones who vary most widely from the norm, whether foreign-born or native, are the principal object of Americanization.

The removal of illiteracy is unquestionably connected with the process. Ability to read and write are demanded as means of hastening the acquisition of common mental content. It is demanded in order that the widest participation in civic duties may take place. Furthermore, illiteracy is as a rule correlated with differences in other respects.

The negroes, Greeks, south Italians, Spaniards, Portuguese, Turks, Syrians, Ruthenians, Lithuanians, Bulgars, Serbs, and Russians are the most illiterate racial stocks we have and receive. They are also the people farthest removed from our national norm.

Adults are not the only members of our national group who need instruction in racial relations. Children should very early learn what our national principles are. They cannot know unless they are taught. With the foreign-born the teaching takes the character of substituting for the old a new language, new habits, and new political and social ideals, suited to the new environment. With children most of the instruction is formative. Such as is not, as a rule, requires the correction of wrong ideas concerning race.

The Americanization of children. The Americanization of children includes two elements. The first is the development of the right attitude towards race, and the second is the forming of as many bonds of unity as possible among the individuals who compose the group. On the first point, it seems clear that little children do not have an instinctive dislike for those of a different race. White children play with Negroes and Japanese, all unconscious of racial differences. Ordinarily awareness of differences become apparent in the upper grades, and may be so marked in the high school as to amount to prejudice. Evidently, then, racial antipathy is acquired either as an incidental reflection of the adult point of view, or as a product of direct conscious teaching on the part of some one.

There can be no better guide to what the attitude towards race ought to be than the great documents of our history and the words of our great statesmen. It is unmistakable that in a public sense no distinctions on account of race can honestly be drawn. In matters that are purely personal, the tastes, inclinations, and preferences must determine his rela-

tions with those of different races as they do with those of his own race. This does not conflict with our doctrine of social justice and equal rights for all.

Using a common language. Whether racial feeling springs up in the hearts of children from the sowing of nature or of society, it becomes a genuine obstacle to national unity. Teachers need to see that nothing is done in school to reflect upon any one because of his race. Bullying and teasing, expressions of contempt and disdain, and any sort of child conduct which is in general designed to bring out the superiority of one person over another should be prevented. On the other hand, the teacher needs to utilize as many of the cementing bonds as she can. Among those which she may rely upon most strongly are language, traditions, and experiences.

Good feeling is based largely upon understanding. To understand one another we must have a common effective means of communication. Children should appreciate fully the civic reasons for learning the American language. Appeal to the patriotic motive in undertaking to eliminate slang, "pigeon English," and vulgar speech of all kinds. Class discussions, compositions, and oral reports may often be profitably given over to such topics as the following:

1. Why newcomers should at once learn the American language.
2. Advantages and disadvantages of foreign language newspapers.
3. Why illiteracy should be eliminated.
4. The origin and development of our language.
5. The importance of a common language in American life.
6. Should other languages besides our own be taught in the elementary school?

Using common traditions. People are also united by a knowledge of the great and heroic achievements of their people. Recourse should be made to as many fields as pos-

sible. Religion, music, art, literature, inventions, medicine, and government are good examples. While studying these, comparisons may be made with the achievements of the people of other times and other countries.

The great source of materials of this kind is history and biography. The school should build up a library of interesting historical readings. Good fiction should figure largely in such a list. There is a great deal of satisfaction in identifying one's self with the characters and experiences of noble men and women. This opportunity reading affords. Children who have been thrilled by the story of the courage and fortitude displayed by the founders of our country are never wholly alien to each other. A Japanese boy well expresses this feeling of appreciation, which one gains from reading our history, in the following words:

They were no doubt the dauntless brave and sincere pioneers of the Western wilderness whose heroic deeds God blesses. I reverence not what they had but what they were, and what they have done for greatness and nobleness.

A topic which is directly connected with Americanization in the school is that of family history. The pupils usually enter into the project with zest. The parents are seldom reluctant about supplying whatever information they have concerning the family origins. Each pupil may thus be led not only to acquaint himself with the best traditions of his own family, but may get a better understanding of the old country life as known to his early ancestors. Dramatization may be used very successfully in reproducing the story of the old home.

Using common experiences. Common experiences tend to overcome the differences due to race. This is another reason for the socialized school. Pupils feel acquainted after playing together, or after carrying out some group project. Friendship is practically nothing more than a resultant of

mutual helpfulness. Teachers should see that the personnel of the small working groups change frequently. This extends the spirit of friendliness.

Groups should not be formed on the basis of race. If the race factor plays any leading part in the election of student officers, selection should be changed from a popularity basis to the merit basis. The teacher should also guard against the isolation of an individual, or of a small group of different race. The spirit of fair play in games, their give and take, and the share-and-share-alike in victory and defeat, help to forestall clannishness.

School instruction that carries over. It is a difficult matter to give instruction in the school that will carry over into the homes. Yet the need of just such teaching is very great among the foreign-born. A sad feature of the immigrant problem arises from the indifference of the children to the special problems their parents have to meet. The younger people adapt themselves readily to the new environment. They become impatient of the slow progress of their elders and come to consider them old-fashioned. This feeling is to blame for much of the impudent, disobedient, and unsympathetic conduct which characterizes many children of immigrants. The teacher may often take up the problems of the older people with the children in the classes in history, English, and civics. Such topics as the following are appropriate:

1. What every one should know about our laws.
2. Where strangers may get advice and protection.
3. How people may go about finding work.
4. Why housing regulations are necessary.
5. How good banks help the community.
6. How the post-office helps the community.
7. Dangers to health in the home.
8. How a person from another country may become a citizen.
9. The benefits in going to night school.
10. Why people from other countries should become naturalized.

The children may help in the work of assimilating their parents. A number of actual examples may be given. In a large city school, the teacher organized the foreign girls into a "Help-at-Home Club." She talked directly with them of their home problems, knew their home conditions, and counseled with them individually. The work in the course centered about home problems. Each girl tried to get as much as she could that she could put to immediate use in her own family. A great improvement in the homes was noticeable by the end of the year, and the mothers were loud in their praise of the school.

In another city with a large foreign population, the associated clubs started a campaign to eliminate illiteracy. The schools were called upon for help. The slogan adopted was "Teach some one to read." At the suggestion of the principal of one of the schools, many of the older children from foreign homes engaged to help their parents. Contrary to the predictions of some of the leaders the plan worked well, and the special visiting teachers who had been engaged reported many congenial "fireside study clubs," with pupil teachers in charge.

Teaching adults. As the bars against immigration are raised our problem of teaching adult foreigners will become smaller and smaller with the passing of time. At present it is big enough to make heavy demands upon all of our teaching facilities. Much of the burden of adult education will have to rest upon night schools. The problem is then taken out of the special realm of the individual day-time teacher. There are, however, two highly important features of any complete Americanization program which are dependent upon the class teacher for help. These are the community center and the home teacher.

The community center. The community center is the name applied to a common house or meeting place of the

people, and used by them for mutual aid in social and civic development. Usually the meeting place should be the schoolhouse. It may be any convenient and suitable building. The name applied to the organization of the people may be Community Center Association, or any similar name that fittingly expresses its purpose.

Often no new organization is necessary. The Parent-Teacher Association or the Grange are the community associations. If they are not considered adequate to the special need, at least the new association should adapt itself and its program to them. Perhaps an older organization may be so directed that it will evolve into the common association.

Aims of the community center. The community center is both a social and an educational enterprise. It furnishes a meeting place, forum, library, recreation center, and theater. It aims to do for the adult what the school should do for the children: to develop leadership in the diffident, to direct the officious, to discover talent, to teach coöperation, to build up respect for rules and law, and to develop self-control. The freedom of association which the association offers is a strong influence in breaking down isolation, removing prejudice, and building up a feeling of fraternity and good will.

The club organizations within the center, as well as the general association, are good training schools for civic participation. They provide experience in voting, office-holding, and legislating. The energies of the club may easily be turned towards community improvement. There should be practice in doing things for the community, as well as coöperation in preparing programs of entertainment. Leaders should constantly strive to keep the association up to the best of its possibilities, and to create a spirit of interest in attaining better things.

Community-center programs. The pupils should be permitted to display their ingenuity in the preparation of com-

munity-center programs. Where there has been some freedom of choice allowed, it is found that the younger people look forward to dances and parties, the older people to programs of an educational nature. The older folks may often be included in school activities, such as picnics, excursions to museums, and holiday celebrations.

Sometimes different racial groups may coöperate in furnishing entertainment and instruction. Lectures, moving pictures, community "sings," debating, forums, general entertainments, and gymnasium activities are typical offerings. Folk-dancing, old country songs, and stereopticon views of old-country scenery may be featured. Sometimes native Americans and one of the immigrant groups give a party together, and "exchange" customs, games, songs, literature, art, and recipes for cooking. At other times, a folk festival with an arts and crafts exhibit may be planned after the manner of the one described below:

In a city of about thirty-five thousand people, with a large number of foreign colonies, a general get-together project was planned. Its object was to bring about a better understanding and appreciation among the different nationalities. The means chosen was an all-day and evening folk festival, each group contributing whatever it could.

The Japanese Association managed the Japanese exhibit. The Portuguese appointed one of their leaders to make all arrangements for them. A local Parent-Teacher Association assumed the responsibility of planning the Scandinavian contribution. The Italian women of the Longfellow School cooked the luncheon, and the women of the Grant School served it. A dancing academy donated their hall for the evening. The Ladies Aid of the Presbyterian Church gave the use of the kitchen and dining-room for the luncheon. The Knights of Columbus furnished their hall for the exhibit, and Boy Scouts saw that articles sent in for exhibit purposes were cared for.

Many of the general organization duties were cared for by the home teachers and the evening school teachers. This group met every two weeks, and invited the appointment of coöperative com-

mittees. Local foreign associations or well-known representatives assumed charge of the exhibits. The home teachers gathered together much material as they visited the homes.

The coöperation was everything that could be wished. The exhibit was varied and attractive. Screens for the booths were supplied by the high school. The art department made the large posters which were put up all about the city. The newspapers gave space generously.

Twelve groups had exhibits: Italians, Portuguese, Scandinavians, Slavs, French, German, Irish, Chinese, Japanese, Filipinos, and the United States.

The program was representative. At the Italian luncheon, Richard V. Bressani gave a splendid address. Jerome Damonte delighted with accordion music. Eugene Steffani sang. At the evening program an address on the arts and crafts of Japan was given by the Japanese Consul. The boys of the Grant School furnished orchestra music; the pupils from the Gardner School entertained with costume dances and songs, as did the girls from the Washington School. The Portuguese were represented by Mr. Ruggeiro, who sang several solos; Mrs. Gomez danced to the castanets, and sang "La Paloma"; Miss Combatalade sang the "Marseillaise" in French. The boys' club of the Grant School had charge of the dance. Mr. Damonte played accordion music for this, in true Italian style.

A charge of \$1.25 was made for the luncheon and the dance. The large sum realized was set aside to buy music, books, and special equipment for the branch evening schools. The aim of the festival was not to raise money, but it was felt that all would prefer to contribute something to the community-center enterprise.

Community-center principles. Many of the cautions applicable to Parent-Teacher Associations also apply to the community center. First, the organization must be democratic. There is no place there for snobbery or pretense. It is an open house to the rich and to the poor alike. Second, freedom of speech and thought must be protected. Unity, not uniformity is aimed at. This necessitates a spirit of tolerance for the other fellow's views. Third, there must be freedom from control by political parties, churches, or other

societies. Fourth, leadership should be unselfish and alert to seize upon all opportunities to distribute, as widely as can be, the benefits which come from coöperative enterprise.

The home teacher. The home teacher has probably proved the most successful single agent of Americanization. Much of this success is due to the fact that she connects pupil life in the school with pupil life at home. Also she touches matters which are personal, and intimately bound up with the welfare of the family. She comes to be regarded as the friend and counselor. She is appealed to in time of trouble. She is advised with upon all matters of importance. She holds the confidence of the elders, and the respect and affection of the children.

In communities that do not have special home teachers, the classroom teacher must take up the duty of making and keeping vital home-and-school relations. Even when there are good home teachers, the parents like to receive visits from the teachers of their children. The teacher is an officer of the State. She can perform no higher service for it than to lead the foreigner to support American institutions and principles.

A few suggestions are given to guide the teacher in her visits. They are not to be followed literally. At all times, she should take into consideration any special circumstances and conditions. Racial characteristics, ages of the children, relative length of time in the community, education, and social and economic status may be points to be considered. Some of the points below will hold in any case:

1. Be yourself. Remember you are not merely an individual, but an interpreter of the school and of America. The teacher who patronizes or affects a superior demeanor can never have influence in Americanization.
2. Explain the purpose of the school. Tell how it is managed, and how every one may benefit from it.

3. Talk about the children, and express an interest in their welfare. Do not point out their shortcomings — at least not at the first visit.
4. Make suggestions whenever you can concerning the health of the family. Tell about the work of the school nurse, and send her to visit if there is need for her services.
5. Talk about America. Tell what it stands for. Mention holidays and important current events. Refer to the advantages of being a citizen. Mention matters of dress, manners, and customs of the country.
6. Point out some of the undoubted values in the whole family knowing the American language.
7. Gradually acquaint the family with night-school privileges.
8. Notice all signs of progress, and bestow praise for them.

The following extract from the report of a teacher, who divides her time between class teaching and home visiting, shows something of the variety and opportunity in the work:

I teach two afternoons a week, and visit in the homes the other afternoons and every morning. My duties consist of follow-up work in the homes, reporting health cases to the Red Cross, referring legal cases to the Commissioner of Immigration and Housing, encouraging the mothers to learn English, and to conform to the school standards of attendance, cleanliness of the children, and attention to their physical and moral welfare. I assist the fathers with their naturalization papers, encourage them to attend night school, and in the winter months occasionally aid in finding a job.

The process of assimilating all the alien factors in our population into a nationality speaking the same language, actuated by the same ideals, and loyal to the same traditions is a long and arduous one. Its success depends upon the wise use of all the educational, social, and civic agencies of the country. The schools no longer exist solely to impart instruction in the art of reading, writing, and computation. The schools exist to perpetuate the elements of American life, and to maintain its traditions and ideals. The problem is a very large one, and its urgency cannot fairly be questioned.

Summary. Americanization is the process of unifying the diverse racial elements of the country into a unified nationality. Our government is opposed to making any distinctions among people on the basis of race. Race, however, is associated with many other differences. These, rather than race, are often responsible for lack of harmony among people. As an educational problem, Americanization requires: (1) the bringing about of a mutual understanding; (2) training in American ideals and traditions; and (3) the cultivation of a proper attitude towards race among the children. Illiteracy is a barrier to assimilation, and progress and its removal is a necessary phase of an Americanization program. Two of the most practicable devices which the school can use are: (1) the community center; and (2) the home teacher.

EXERCISES AND PROBLEMS

1. Make up a list of the various agencies, found in the typical community, which can be relied upon to help in Americanization.
2. Develop a plan for the use of the school library in Americanization work.
3. Show how a reorganized school, such as is found at Gary, Indiana, may become the leading agency in an Americanization program.
4. What is the nature of what is commonly known as the "Negro Problem"? Suggest any practicable devices that occur to you for making the relations between the races more satisfactory.
5. Make up a small list of books and stories in Americanization which pupils in the upper grades and the high school would be interested in.
6. Prepare a series of "Don'ts," addressed to citizens, which would be appropriate to put on a poster designed to draw the attention of the public to its duty towards Americanization.
7. The ten leading "troubles" of foreigners are stated below. Try to determine the leading remedy for each of these difficulties:
 1. Insanitary labor camps.
 2. Difficulty in collecting wages.
 3. Employment agency frauds.
 4. Industrial accidents.
 5. Breach of contract.
 6. False arrest and imprisonment.
 7. Attorney's fraud or negligence.
 8. Business frauds.
 9. Detention of money.
 10. Extortion.

8. Discuss the proposition that most of the adaptation should come from those who seek America, rather than from native Americans.
9. Name as many factors in present-day life as you can which serve to divide people.
10. Interview some child concerning his attitude towards those of a different race. What is your conclusion concerning the statement that racial antipathy is not inherent?
11. Show how a "Better English" week may make a distinctive contribution to Americanization.
12. Discuss the statement that anything which tends to equalize people tends to break down prejudices.
13. Formulate a plan for a play, or other type of project, which would tend to cause children to have a greater appreciation of the problems their parents have to contend with.
14. Usually many organizations are found in every community. How do you explain the fact that it is often necessary to create a new association in order to mould the interests and efforts of all into a single comprehensive group?

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CHAPTER XVI

THE TEACHER AND CITIZENSHIP

Education and the civic program. The preceding chapters have been written in the conviction that without popular education a democratic social organization cannot long endure. Training for citizenship is consequently the principal function of the school. It should be organized and administered with the civic objective predominating. The civic values in the curriculum should be utilized. Extra-class activities should be stimulated which develop the civic conscience. Theory and practice should be related to the present. School influence should be projected into the future, to the end that conditions of living be improved. All this is the work of the teacher.

Without popular action, however, there can be no free universal educational system. Unquestionable facts as to the worth of education should be the basis of popular faith in it. The teacher, therefore, should demonstrate educational values. She should, moreover, be diligent in moulding public opinion in the broad field of civic life, and in giving trend to educational thought. "Professional duty is not circumscribed to the schoolroom or to the office. The teacher must face about, voice to the people their own latent ideas and purposes, and crystallize their convictions into active educational forces."

The teacher as a citizen. The greatest civic contribution the teacher can make will be found in the efficient exercise of her vocation. She has, however, a responsible place as an individual citizen. As a member of a progressive professional organization her position is even more powerful.

Society rightly expects that teachers will individually and collectively maintain high civic standards. They should be distinguished by a high sense of justice, an intense loyalty, a devotion to service, strict obedience to law, respect for property rights, fidelity in carrying out contractual agreements, and reliance upon orderly and lawful methods in effecting political and social transitions.

As a citizen, the teacher is entitled to all rights and privileges of other members of the political group. She should not feel herself limited in the exercise of her rights because of her profession. The refusal of teachers to ally themselves with political parties, to affiliate with movements for social amelioration, and to take a firm stand on questions of general public concern indicates a narrow view of their duties and privileges. The teacher need not be a meddler or busybody to carry out this principle. She should discriminate between the non-essential or unimportant and the significant. There is scarcely any danger of a teacher mistaking which side her duty lies on in any really great matter of public controversy.

The danger comes when she descends to the level of narrow partisanship. She should not make her position a dispensary for propaganda. She should not inflict personal political views upon those who either out of respect for the profession or because there is no other alternative must submit without reply. Nevertheless, instead of being restricted because of her profession, her broader outlook, her deeper insight, her unselfish interest in the public welfare, and her contact with teachable minds should give her an influence which the individual whose mind is turned to his own affairs cannot have.

The teacher as a leader. The unbiased attitude not only gives greater freedom, but it gives greater influence. People are quick to appreciate the judicial point of view. They are

willing to listen to opinions based upon facts and upon clear, dispassionate reasoning. Furthermore, she should believe in her own cause. Her position on public affairs should be clear and positive. Her decision should be so resolute and unfaltering that it will serve to give impetus and motive to the public mind.

Members of the teaching profession have been slow to consider public office for themselves. Such disinclination is not becoming to their abilities, or their profession. Neither is it conducive to the best in government. Political policies are too often from election to election. They are usually the product of political exigencies and necessities. They are seldom the conscious working out of a scientific plan. We do not stand in need of more of the so-called practical in government. We do need more of ideals, vision, and theory — organized reason, and the ability to express a truth in such a way as to see its relation to all truth. These, the framers of our great political documents had. These have signalized the lives of our greatest statesmen. These may well be the contribution of teachers to public affairs. One who thinks in terms of the present, and of future generations as well, is a safer trustee of democracy than one who keeps his eyes on immediate advantages.

Yet even with the use of the greatest foresight, and the employment of all the tools of science, situations will arise for which there is no absolute guidance. In an emergency of this sort teachers should be able to inspire others with their faith in the outcome. Democracy implies living with a certain degree of audacity and courage. It means attacking evil valiantly, and building generously with something of the divine opportunism of American pioneers who "felt their way along, working out each problem as they came to it with energy and determination, and conquering, what they did not understand, by diligent study, unwearied zeal, and sound common sense."

Qualities of leadership. Leadership in a profession is primarily leadership in service. Essentially it is the ability to inspire united effort in pursuit of a worthy objective. It is usually independent of personal rewards and consequences. Looking at the leader from the general point of view, we may say that he must possess the following characteristics:

1. Vision or insight. He sees what the ultimate aims of the group should be, and the steps which must be taken for their realization.
2. Power of expression. The leader states the program so clearly and convincingly that it becomes a part of the lives of his followers.
3. Idealization. Through the consciousness of each other that comes from common effort and common sympathy, the purpose takes on something of the sacred nature of a cause to which one would willingly sacrifice self.
4. Persistence. The leader never gives up. He encourages his associates when defeat comes, he is hopeful and enthusiastic, he is fruitful in expedients.

The highest opportunity for leadership comes in organization. While the solitary worker occasionally rises to a position of great prominence, his achievement is indicative of exceptional powers or exceptional opportunities — usually of both. At all events, he has to resort to social media, such as publication and platform, in order to make his influence felt. Not very much can be done without the presence of organization. Membership in professional organizations is absolutely indispensable to leadership.

Social leadership. To be a real factor in social progress the teacher and the teaching profession must identify themselves with the social program. While there is no disposition to question this principle, many do question whether definite social objectives can be formulated. At least they deny that one may plan the future of a city, a state, or a nation as

one may plan the life of an individual. Yet there is evidence to the contrary. The vital force which is found in our political classics after a century, and the whole history of American statesmanship, are eloquent testimony to the effect of principles and programs in motivating the life of a commonwealth.

The difficulty in formulating a social program, say for a century, does not hinge about getting agreement on the general aims. The trouble comes in when we try to get support for the concrete ways and means by which the general aims may be brought into realization. In general, then, the emphasis should be placed upon what to do, leaving the "how" to be ascertained later. The execution of plans may properly be entrusted to those best qualified, the general organization holding them for results. This is a good rule to follow in business administration. It also applies in situations where society is the employer.

The force of general objectives. A recent writer, in commenting upon the meager accomplishments of society, declared that the standard devices to which people resort, namely, education, legislation, and spiritual exhortation, have failed. He finds the hope of the future in the exercise of intelligence, working through science. Yet an examination of the methods which enable people to improve their condition reveals the fact that all the standard devices are employed, not once, but persistently. They are employed to retain advantages, as well as to gain them. Experience after experience — even science itself — demonstrates that people working resolutely, intelligently, and persistently and in accord with a well-conceived plan can in time accomplish almost anything within the realm of the possible. The following is given as an example of what was done in a few years in a small community:

Through the leadership of the school and the church, the

people of a small Western town became conscious that they needed certain improvements. A survey by a committee of citizens laid out a program as follows:

1. The opening up and paving of a road leading to an adjacent prosperous farming community.
2. The establishment of a park and a recreation center.
3. The substitution of a system of diversified agriculture for the one-crop system prevailing in the surrounding country.
4. An adequate water system, paved streets, lawns, and gardens.

At the meeting when the committee brought in its recommendations only five people were present. There is now a community association, with practically every citizen as a member. An examination of the records of the club show that, since its inception, the following have been accomplished:

1. Within one year a tract for a park and a community center had been purchased. The park had been planted to trees, flowers, and shrubs, and playgrounds were ready for use.
2. Within three years street paving had commenced, and the old wooden water pipes had been replaced by iron mains.
3. Five years after the committee report the saloons were voted out. They returned two years later. At the end of another two years they were driven out permanently.
4. Inside of ten years, the town was counted a leader in the good roads movement. Paved highways radiated from it into the neighboring farming communities, and one of the main highways of the State ran through it.
5. When the association celebrated the tenth anniversary of its existence a report showed that the farmers' institute had become an annual event, under the auspices of the State Agricultural College. The growing of corn, alfalfa, and peas had been successfully demonstrated. Dairy and poultry products vie with the wheat crop in value.

Planning in the cities. Most of the planning which has been done applies to large cities. Over one hundred of them have embarked upon definite programs of building and de-

velopment. Some of them look forward three or four generations. They have served as a powerful stimulus to civic life. The movement should be turned into organized community channels everywhere. In no place is there greater need than in counties which lack the leadership of a large metropolitan population. A sense of civic pride can usually be detected in cities and States. What county stands out in the public mind with a record of civic achievement? Too often aimless, unthinking, and dreary social existence seems to characterize the county areas, and their numerous village and little town appendages. The experience of the large cities should contain something profitable to the smaller centers.

The plans must be broad enough and vital enough to appeal to the highest ideals in the community. They may apply to any or all of the typical activities. As an example of social projects undertaken, consider the following outline of the plan adopted by a large Eastern city:

1. An improvement in hygiene and sanitation.
2. The adoption of an adequate housing code.
3. The establishment of a civic center, and the appointment of a permanent committee on municipal art and design.
4. An extension of parks and playgrounds, and the building of social centers.
5. The beautification of the city. The parkings, yards, and driveways of residences were especially stressed.
6. Added educational advantages, with emphasis upon evening schools.
7. A more efficient and more democratic government.

The reports of the accomplishments of civic groups when working under the guidance of a plan are even more convincing. As an example, let us take a few of the many achievements of the city of Cincinnati. The complete record may be found in *The Citizens' Book* published by the Chamber of Commerce. The period covered is ten years.

1. The construction of a new water system, providing pure water. As a consequence the death rate from typhoid has been reduced two hundred yearly.
2. The construction of a courthouse, costing two and one half millions of dollars.
3. The construction of a municipal hospital of twenty-four buildings. The site, which also belongs to the city, covers sixty-five acres.
4. The construction of the finest municipally owned tuberculosis sanitarium in the United States.
5. Street viaducts built, and many grade crossings eliminated.
6. A general improvement in the public schools, described as the "Renaissance" in education.
7. The University of Cincinnati was modernized.
8. Higher standards of municipal government were introduced.
9. Twenty-four fully equipped public playgrounds, and twenty-one athletic fields were added.
10. The general death rate was reduced from 18.73 to 15.67. The infant death rate was reduced from 2.11 to 1.80.
11. The annual fire loss was cut down from \$1.78 per capita to \$.91.
12. The construction of adequate rail and water transportation facilities was completed.

State planning. No State has ever formulated a comprehensive plan for the advancement of the welfare of its people. The outlines of conscious objectives may be detected in a few instances. California has a State-wide plan in education, Oregon in direct government, Wisconsin in the control of public utilities, and Nebraska, Idaho, and Illinois in efficient governmental organization. Many of the accomplishments have been due to the work of a few far-seeing men and women. In most instances, however, they have been the result of persistent effort on the part of organized groups.

Generally speaking, our coöperative civic consciousness has not been carried beyond the confines of the city or of the school district. We have the organizations for wider pro-

grams in women's clubs, the State Chamber of Commerce, and the State Teachers' Association. Heretofore, our State organizations have as a rule been concerned with temporary or special problems, and not with the formulation of broad social objectives. [State departments of health, conservation, roads, welfare, and the like in the reorganized State governments are promising agencies of improvement. Their most serious handicaps at present are partisan politics and consequent lack of popular support.

National planning. Greater progress has been made in planning on a national scale than in the States. A fair course has been laid out for the conservation of resources. A national system of paved highways is under construction. The financial system, while not perfect, is well organized and successful. The civil service is practically upon the merit basis. We have a well-defined policy respecting the other countries on the American continent. Public opinion is clarified in respect to such subjects as the restriction of immigration, open diplomacy, maintenance of the rights of neutrals, supremacy of the Nation over the State, and at least a tendency in the direction of enlarging the scope of national powers everywhere. In the main, our success has been due to a high type of statesmanship in public office, and not to the presence of organized planning agencies.

In addition to the National Government, we have many private organizations that are country-wide. They are engaged in the promotion of special programs, which are often embodied in the plans of the many community associations. Some typical examples of such organizations are given below, together with their addresses. They invariably are willing to supply teachers with information concerning their aims:

American Public Health Association, 755 Boylston Street, Boston.

- American Proportional Representation League, Haverford, Pennsylvania.
- American Federation of Labor, A.F. of L. Building, Washington, D.C.
- National Municipal League, North American Building, Philadelphia.
- National Short Ballot League, 383 Fourth Avenue, New York City.
- National Child Labor Commission, 105 East 22d Street, New York City.
- National League of Women Voters, Munsey Building, Washington, D.C.
- National Education Association, 1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.
- National Tax Association, 15 Dey Street, New York City.
- National Conservation Congress, Washington, D.C.
- National Civic Federation, 1 Madison Avenue, New York City.
- National Association of Manufacturers, 30 Church Street, New York City.

Needs of the future. An examination of the history of America will convince any one that great progress has been made. Moreover, it has been made in a comparatively short time. If past accomplishments may be taken as an index to what we may expect in the future, the outlook is indeed promising. We shall, however, always find it to our advantage to lay out future social objectives. They show in what direction the goal is, if not how it may be attained.

In theory, such programs may be entrusted to political parties both for initiation and realization. In actuality, they depend upon statesmanship working both within and independent of party. The greatest limitation to party action is found when the capture of offices is the real aim, or when the length of the administrative term is too short to enable officials to originate and finish enterprises. Independent organizations, therefore, may have a clearer vision

of future needs than those that expect to profit directly by their action. Among all such organizations teachers should be found. Because of the need of education in advancing social reform, the coöperation of teachers is indispensable in any far-reaching social program.

A century program. Any program suggested for the future must seem inadequate when compared with the accomplishments of the past. Nevertheless, advantages may arise from the mere enumeration of a few social aims. They may well stimulate discussion. One may be led to question whether there are not others equally significant. Most of those that are given herewith already have their proponents. Some of them are merely means toward a more perfect democracy. Some are ultimate phases of democracy itself. In their consideration one point is vital enough for reiteration — any scheme of social reform must be solidly founded upon what we have already that is socially and politically worth while.

1. In five years — the adoption of a flexible and liberal national system of coöperation in education.
2. In ten years — the elimination of illiteracy.
3. In fifteen years — freedom from unfair and corrupt methods of business competition.
4. In fifteen years — freedom of the consumer from extortionate and oppressive charges in all articles in common use.
5. In fifteen years — the reorganization of education in the interest of greater efficiency and greater equality of opportunity, and with the substitution of professional merit for partisan politics in the selection of State and county school officers.
6. In twenty years — a simplified and less technical procedure in courts at law, and the beginnings at least of a much-needed reform in the profession of law itself.
7. In twenty-five years — the substitution of sound business administration for politics in city, county, State, and National Governments.
8. In twenty-five years — the reorganization of State, county,

and city government along the lines recommended by experts in political science, and characterized by efficiency, democracy, and the elimination of "the invisible government."

9. In twenty-five years — the reclassification of children in the schools, and the adoption of a new curriculum adjusted to social and individual needs.
10. In thirty years — the maintenance of a decent standard of living for every one.
11. In forty years — the eradication of contagious and infectious diseases.
12. In fifty years — the restriction of dependency to institutional cases.
13. In seventy-five years — the control of mental defectiveness.
14. In ninety years — the reduction of delinquency and criminality to one half its present proportions.
15. In one hundred years — the elimination of race prejudice and religious bigotry.

How the program may be realized. To carry out a modest program such as the foregoing will put no small demand upon education, legislation, and real Christianity. Needless to say, intelligence and science may have as broad a field as they can wish. Every community should have its civic organizations, well equipped, wisely generated, and active. Social realization — the achievement in the aggregate of the best which any respectable person can in reason ask for himself — is possible. There is something decidedly more inspiring in the attitude which brings things to pass than in that which waits for things to happen.

No teacher need feel excluded from civic enterprise because of lack of companionship and coöperation. All the youth of the country are waiting upon her leadership. This call to civic activity has been expressed by no one so well as by William James, when he says:

These, then, are my last words to you: Be not afraid of life. Believe that life is worth living, and your belief will help to create the fact. The scientific proof that you are right may not be clear

until the Day of Judgment is reached. But the faithful fighters of this hour . . . may turn to the faint-hearted who here decline to go on with words like those with which Henry IV greeted the tardy Crillon after a great battle had been gained: "Hang yourself, brave Crillon! We fought at Arques, and you were not there."

EXERCISES AND PROBLEMS

1. Formulate a civic creed for the teaching profession.
2. Comment upon the statement that legislation, education, and spiritual exhortation have failed to effect far-reaching changes for the better in society.
3. Report on the progress that has been made in some community which you know. What were the causes? The means employed?
4. What plan can you suggest to eliminate illiteracy from some community with which you are acquainted?
5. Discuss the statement that teachers should take an active part in carrying out plans for social improvement.
6. Make a list of the characteristics which serve to distinguish a profession or a professionally-minded individual.
7. Name some leader of note with whom you are acquainted. What qualities account for his eminence?
8. Why is organization essential to great civic achievement? Discuss.
9. Briefly describe a community that you know well. Outline a plan which would, when carried into effect, meet its greatest needs.
10. Make up a short list of either State or national organizations which are working for social reform and improvement. What is common in the methods they employ? What is common in their aims?
11. List the principal achievements for civic betterment that have been made in your State during the past decade.
12. Make as many additions as you can to the social program outlined in this chapter.

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